



THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES AND ITS PEOPLE

BY
EDWARD EGGLESTON



NEW EDITION
REVISED AND ENLARGED

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PREFACE.

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THE present work is meant, in the first instance, for the young—not alone for boys and girls, but for young men and women who have yet to make themselves familiar with the more important features of their country's history. By a book for the young is meant one in which the author studies to make his statements clear and explicit, in which curious and picturesque details are inserted, and in which the writer does not neglect such anecdotes as lend the charm of a human and personal interest to the broader facts of the nation's story. That history is often tiresome to the young is not so much the fault of history as of a false method of writing by which one contrives to relate events without sympathy or imagination, without narrative connection or animation. The attempt to master vague and general records of kiln-dried facts is certain to beget in the ordinary reader a repulsion from the study of history—one of the very most important of all studies for its widening influence on general culture.

As the traits which render an historic narrative attractive to the young are likely to make it interesting to older people, I do not despair of finding readers beyond the special class for which this book is prepared. There are intelligent people, no longer young, may be, who will think none the worse of

my book that it strives to make the causes and results of public events clear, and to trace with simplicity our present institutions from their springs downward, that it relates curious details of life and manners, and now and then turns aside to tell an incident illustrative of character, or dwells with a little momentary fondness on the exploits of a Benjamin Church, the heroism of a Nathaniel Bacon, and the adventures of a Daniel Boone.

I know of no surer way of making life tedious to a reader than the method of considering the early history of the United States as the history of thirteen petty communities and their intestine squabbles. It is, of course, indispensable that one shall give an account of the origin of each of the thirteen colonies, but for the rest I have preferred to consider the country as a whole, and the people before and after the Revolution as essentially one, omitting particulars which are neither interesting nor instructive. Two classes of facts have especially claimed attention: First, those events, great or small, which have exerted an influence on the general current of our history or modified our institutions. These must be understood, in order to keep in mind that chain of causes and effects which makes history reasonable and intelligible. The second class includes those facts which make the individual traits of great men vivid to us, and, more important still, those which enable us to understand the character and modes of life of the body of the people in times different from our own. The old historians took note of nobody but princes, courtiers, and generals. But history, like everything else, has become more democratic

in these modern days, and the real hero of the historian's story to-day is the community itself. "We need a history of fire-sides," said Daniel Webster. It would be specially unfortunate if the writer on the history of a republic like ours should be so taken up with what Sir Walter Scott would call "the big bow-wow" of public events as to neglect the story of the evolution of a great people.

As its title indicates, this is a "household edition." The school edition of the book has already appeared, and the instantaneous favor it has met with, not only as a text-book, but also as a book for general use, encouraged the preparation of the present edition. The omission of a hundred pages of questions and other machinery for teaching has enabled the writer to greatly enlarge the text by incorporating many interesting facts which could not be compressed into the limits of a school edition. To adapt the work to the purposes of the general reader, the text has been rearranged and in many parts rewritten.

Of course, I am aware that one of the very chief attractions of the book is due to the liberality with which the publishers have availed themselves of so many of the resources of the modern art of illustration to enhance its value. The pictures represent the work of many of the best designers and engravers of our time. A very considerable body of knowledge regarding the history of civilization may be acquired from the illustrations of costume, armor, inventions, implements, sea and river craft, vehicles, and of manners generally. The drawings have been mostly made under the personal super-

vision of the writer, and have required no less thought and care than the text itself. Many of these designs are founded on rare prints, and others are from ancient original drawings not before engraved, while a few have been made from written descriptions of contemporary writers. Mr. John A. Fraser has had charge of the book on its artistic side, and the illustrations have been made under his direction. For assistance in procuring illustrations I am indebted to the kindness of several friends, and especially to Justin Winsor, LL. D., Librarian of Harvard University; Major J. W. Powell, of the U. S. Geological Survey; and Prof. G. Brown Goode, of the Smithsonian Institution. Special acknowledgment is likewise due to the Century Company for favors in this matter.

The main purpose in making so great a number of small maps has been to preserve the utmost simplicity. A crowded map is a vexation to the brain and eye. In most cases a map for historical illustration should be a diagram of the fact under consideration, showing no names or details not necessary to the comprehension of that fact. Not only is the reader saved from much needless toil by this plan, but maps thus arranged serve the double purpose of elucidating the narrative and impressing it on the memory at the same time by giving it form to the eye. Each little map becomes a local diagram of some historical fact, and the form of the map will remain in the memory inseparably associated with the event to which it belongs—a geographical body to an historical soul.

This smaller history by its earlier issue reaps a benefit from many laborious years of investigation for a larger work

yet far from ready for publication, and some facts of considerable importance first see the light in these pages. Statements in this narrative which seem novel and different from those hitherto accepted are based upon a personal study of original authorities, and in many cases are the result of an examination of ancient manuscripts in the British Public Record Office, the British Museum, the Library of Congress, and some other collections, public and private.

It is impossible, however, to write a book covering the whole period of the history of the United States without incurring obligations to a great multitude of other writers and investigators. I owe much to the several writers in Mr. Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History of America," to Mr. Parkman's various works relating to the conflicts between the English and French colonies, and to Mr. Schouler's "History of the United States under the Constitution." I am also indebted to Mr. Bancroft, to Mr. Lossing, and to Mr. McMaster. Nor ought I to omit Ripley's "Mexican War" or Dodge's "Bird's-Eye View of the Civil War." For the rest I must crave indulgence. It would be impossible to enumerate here or even to recall all the writers on special subjects to whom I have referred.

One word is due in regard to the treatment of recent events. Occurrences of our own time do not properly belong to history, nor can a dispassionate and historical judgment be formed regarding the debates and conflicts in which living men have borne a part. I have, therefore, treated the period from about 1850 by a method different from that employed in giving an

account of earlier times, contenting myself with a narrative of the events, and not venturing on premature judgments. We who were in some sense victims of the passions of the civil-war period are not the best judges of questions between the participants. Moreover, I have desired that this little book, which will be read largely by the young, may contribute to bring about that oneness of sentiment in which lies the only hope for national union and prosperity. The true work of patriotism in this time is conciliation and the consolidation of our national life.

EDWARD EGGLESTON.

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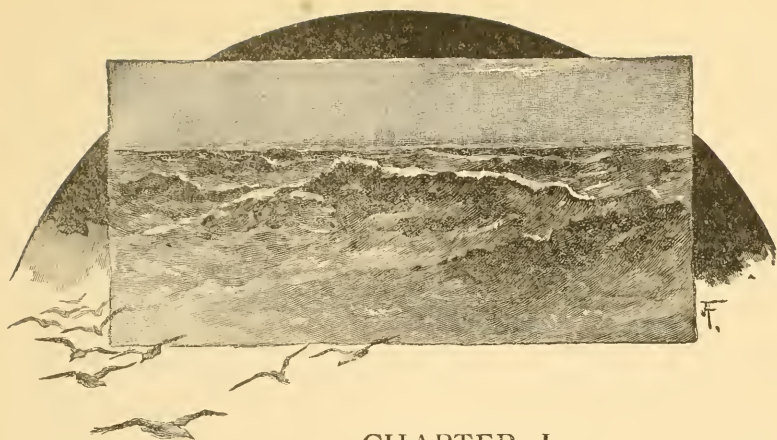
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THE SHIPS OF COLUMBUS.



CHAPTER I.

HOW COLUMBUS DISCOVERED AMERICA.

IT is now about four hundred years since Columbus discovered America. People in Europe, up to that time, had known nothing of any lands on the western side of the Atlantic. Travelers were very liable to be robbed as soon as they reached a foreign land, and the ships of the time made but short voyages, and were often plundered by ships of other nations. The people of Europe, therefore, did not know much of Asia, except that it was the land of spices, which spices, grown in India, were sold from one country to another until the Turks sold them to European merchants. But, about two hundred years before Columbus was born, a Venetian, by the name of Marco Polo, had succeeded in visiting China, and had written a book giving many wonderful accounts of the splendor of the Chinese cities and of the riches of the Eastern countries generally, as well as many curious stories about the people who lived in those far-away lands.

Trade with India
in the time of
Columbus.



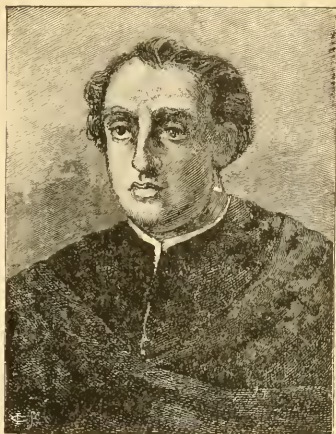
PROW OF
ANCIENT
WAR-SHIP.

Portuguese
explorations.A SAILOR
OF THAT TIME.Early life of
Columbus.

When Columbus was a boy, there was a prince of Portugal, Don Henrique by name, who is known to us as Prince Henry the Navigator. He first turned men's minds in the direction of discovery. Though the maps of his time made Africa extend to the south pole, Prince Henry believed, from what he found in ancient books, that there was a way to get around Africa to India and China, and thus to bring the spices and other commodities of those lands to Europe by sea. But the seamen of that day were accustomed to sail mostly in the Mediterranean, and they were timid in the Atlantic Ocean. The Portuguese sent out expedition after expedition for seventy years before they succeeded in discovering the Cape of Good Hope, and they had not yet got around that cape when Columbus offered to find a new and shorter way to India.

Christopher Columbus, the most renowned of all discoverers, was born in the city of Genoa, in Italy. The exact date of his birth is uncertain. His father was a wool-comber by trade, but, though the family was humble, Columbus received considerable education, and he was all his life studious to acquire knowledge about navigation and about geography as far as it was then understood. He knew Latin, wrote a good hand, and drew maps exceedingly well. He sometimes supported himself by making maps and charts. At fourteen he went to sea, and before his great voyage he had sailed to almost all the countries of the known world. He had gone some distance down the newly discovered coast of Africa with the Portuguese, and to the north beyond Iceland. Columbus married the daughter of a Portuguese navigator, and thus came into possession of his charts.

As learned men already believed the world to be round, Columbus asked: Why try to get to India and China by going around Africa? Why not sail straight to the west around the world to Asia? He did not know that America was in the way, and he thought that the world was smaller than it is, and therefore he believed that he could reach the rich lands of gold and spices in Asia by sailing only two or three thousand miles to the westward. So that Columbus discovered America in consequence of two mistakes.



COLUMBUS.

He first offered to make this discovery for the city of Genoa, in which he was born. Then he offered his plan to the King of Portugal. But a voyage on the great Atlantic Ocean seemed a dreadful thing in those days. It was called the "Sea of Darkness," because no one knew anything about it, and people imagined that it was inhabited by hideous monsters.

The King of Portugal was an enlightened man, and the ideas of Columbus made an impression on him after a while. But he did not like to grant the great rewards demanded by the navigator if he should find land; so he secretly sent out a ship under another commander to sail to the westward and see if there was any land there. The sailors on this ship were easily discouraged, and they returned laughing at Columbus and his notions.

But Columbus was not a man to be discouraged. No rebuff from the great, no amount of ridicule, no bitter-

Columbus proposes a new way to India.

False notions in the way.

A ship sent out secretly.

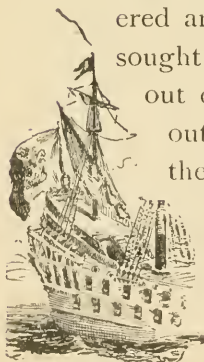
Columbus in Spain.

ness of poverty, could ever make him give up his great thought of discovering the western boundary of the Atlantic. Finding that he had been trifled with, he proudly refused to reopen negotiations with King John of Portugal. Poor and in debt, he secretly left that country and traveled into Spain afoot, leading his little son by the hand. He had determined to offer his idea to the King and Queen of Spain, the celebrated Ferdinand and Isabella. The



FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.

Spanish monarchs were very busy in their war against the Moors, and Columbus spent six or seven years in trying to persuade them to furnish him ships and sailors for his voyage. The matter was at one time referred to a meeting of learned men, some of whom tried to prove from the Scriptures and other writings that the world was flat and not round. Others said that, if the world was round and a ship sailed down one side, it could never get back up again. During his long waiting on the king and queen, Columbus followed the Spanish court in its movements in the war with the Moors, and he even took a brave part in some of the battles of the time. He was laughed at for a visionary, and the children in the streets tapped their foreheads with their fingers when he passed by, to intimate their belief that he was crazy. At length, when the war was over, his affair was considered and his offer rejected. For eighteen years he had sought in vain an outfit for his voyage. But, not yet out of heart, he resolved to quit Spain, and he set out to begin his solicitations anew at the court of the King of France. Some of his friends now made a strong appeal to the Spanish queen, which so

STERN OF
ANCIENT
WAR-SHIP.

impressed Isabella that she offered to sell her jewels, if necessary, to procure money to send Columbus on his expedition. A messenger on horseback recalled him, and by this prompt action Spain secured the glory of finding the New World.

Columbus sailed from Spain on the 3d of August, 1492, with three small vessels, two of which were without decks, and he was more than two months on the voyage. The sailors were more and more frightened as they found themselves going farther and farther

out of the known world. They sometimes threatened to pitch Columbus overboard and return.

He kept their courage up by every means he could think of, even by concealing from them how

far they had come. The flight of land-birds, the discovery of a twig, with berries on it, floating in the water, and at length the picking up of a carved stick, served to encourage the mariners, whose eyes were strained day after day to catch sight of anything but the wild waste of unknown waters through which they had been sailing for so many weeks. At last, one night, Columbus saw a glimmer of light, and the next morning one of the other ships fired a gun, to signify that land was seen. This was the 12th of October, 1492. There was the wildest joy among the seamen. They had lately hated their commander, and wished to kill

His departure on his great voyage, and his discovery of land.



THE PART OF THE WORLD KNOWN WHEN COLUMBUS SAILED IS IN WHITE.

him; they now crowded about him to embrace him or to kiss his hands.

What he had found.

Instead of finding the rich cities of Asia, Columbus had come upon one of the smallest of the West India islands, which was inhabited by people entirely naked, and living in the rudest manner. He afterward discovered larger islands, and then sailed homeward.

Return of Columbus.

He took with him to Spain some of the wild inhabitants, who were exhibited at the court in all their showy decorations of paint and feathers, and he also made a display of the golden ornaments he had procured. Ferdinand and Isabella received him with the pomp due to a great conqueror, and he, who had been but a beggar before, was welcomed by the monarchs under a rich canopy of brocade of gold. The king and queen rose to welcome him, and made him sit down in their presence, a favor never shown except to the greatest grandees. The people, who had believed him a fool when he went away, followed him with cheers as he walked along the street.

Later voyages of Columbus.

Columbus, in his second voyage to America, planted a colony on the island of Hispaniola, or Hayti. In this and in two other voyages he discovered other islands and a portion of the coast of South America, which he first saw in 1498. He made four voyages to America in all, setting out on the first in 1492, the second in 1493, the third in 1498, and the fourth in 1502. Though a great navigator, he was not a wise governor of the colonies he planted, and he had many enemies. In 1500 he was cruelly sent home to Spain in chains. But Ferdinand and Isabella, as well as the people, were shocked at this degradation, and he was at once set

free. His last voyage was 'unfortunate, and when he returned to Spain, in November, 1504, the monarchs paid little attention to him. Queen Isabella died soon after his return, while Columbus lay sick, and when the great navigator came to court the king was deaf to his petitions. Worn out with fatigue, exposure, and anxiety, the great admiral died on the 20th of May, 1506. He never knew that he had found a new world, but lived and died in the belief that the large island of Cuba was a part of the mainland of Asia.

The investigations of scholars give us some reason to believe that America may have been visited from Europe before the time of Columbus. The inhabitants of Scandinavia (the country now divided into Denmark, Sweden, and Norway) were known as Norsemen. In the old romantic tales of Scandinavia there are stories which go to show that these Norsemen, under the command of Leif, the son of Eric, in the year 1001, and afterward, probably explored the coast of America from Labrador southward for some distance. Fanciful theories have been built on these stories, such as the notion that the old stone windmill at Newport, Rhode Island, is a tower built by the Norsemen. There is also a tradition in Wales that one Madoc, a Welsh prince, in the year 1170, discovered land to the west of Ireland, and took a colony thither, which was never heard of afterward. If these stories of Leif and Madoc represent real voyages, the discoveries which they relate would probably never have been recalled to memory if Columbus had not opened a wide door at the right moment.

Discoveries before Columbus.

CHAPTER II.

OTHER DISCOVERIES IN AMERICA.



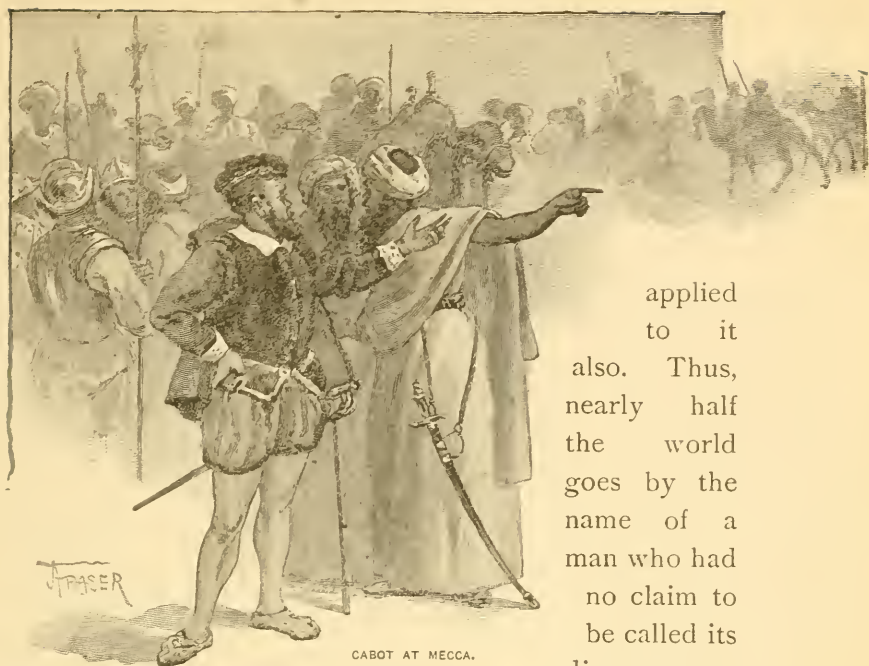
AMERICUS.

Naming of
America.

Voyages of
Americus
Vespucius.

A PART of the glory of Columbus's great discovery was taken away from him by accident. Instead of bearing the name of the great navigator whose persevering devotion to an idea led him to discover it, the western hemisphere is named after Amerigo Vesputci, better known to us as Americus Vespucius, the Latin form of his name. Vespucius was born in Florence, but he removed to Spain a little before Columbus sailed on his first voyage. He was with an expedition that discovered a part of South America in 1499. A false claim was made that Vespucius saw that continent two years earlier. But it is now believed that this first date is incorrect; there are documents which go to show that Vespucius was in Spain during all that year, so that the earliest discovery of the South American Continent was by Columbus in 1498.

Americus undoubtedly went to America several times, both from Spain and Portugal. In 1503 he built a fort on the coast of Brazil; and he left there a little colony, the first in that part of South America. Ferdinand of Spain made him pilot-major of his kingdom in 1508, and he died in 1512. Americus wrote pleasantly about the new lands which he had seen, and some German geographers were so pleased with his descriptions that they called the country America, in honor of Americus, supposing him to have first seen the continent. When North America came to be placed on the maps, this name was



CABOT AT MECCA.

applied
to it
also. Thus,
nearly half
the world
goes by the
name of a
man who had
no claim to
be called its
discoverer.

The voyage of Columbus was undertaken, as we have seen, to open a trade with the Spice Islands of Asia, and the failure to find these was disappointing. There was another great Italian navigator living at the same time as Columbus, whose name was Zuan Caboto, who is called in English John Cabot. He, also, was probably born in Genoa, but he was naturalized in Venice. He was living in Bristol, in England, in 1495, and had, no doubt, heard of the great discovery of Columbus when he laid before King Henry VII of England his own plans for a voyage to the west. Columbus had been a traveler by sea, and had gone far to the southward and northward. Cabot had also been a traveler, but he had penetrated to the eastward overland, and had reached the city of Mecca,

John Cabot.

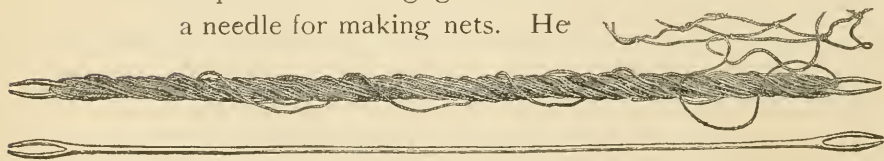


HENRY VII.

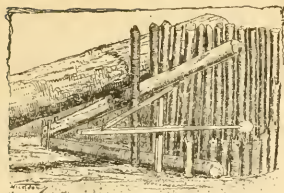
in Arabia, and had there seen the caravans bringing spices from India. He inquired of the people of these caravans where they got their spices. They said that other caravans brought them to their country, and that the people in those caravans reported that they bought them from people who lived yet farther away. From all this John Cabot concluded that the spices so much valued in Europe must grow in the most easterly part of Asia, and that he could reach this part of Asia by sailing to the west, as Columbus had done.

Columbus and
Henry VII.

While Columbus was trying to persuade Ferdinand and Isabella to send him on a voyage of discovery, he had sent his brother, Bartholomew Columbus, to make a like offer to the English king. When Bartholomew returned to Spain with King Henry VII's answer, Christopher Columbus had already discovered the New World. But, though Columbus had found what he believed to be a part of Asia, he had not found the region of gold and spices. Cabot believed that he might be more fortunate. He got permission from Henry VII to sail at the expense of certain English merchants, and in May, 1497, nearly five years after Columbus had started on his first voyage, Cabot set sail from Bristol with only one small vessel and eighteen persons. He discovered the Continent of North America, which he of course supposed to be a part of Asia. He did not meet any Indians, but he brought to King Henry one of their traps for catching game, and a needle for making nets. He



INDIAN NEEDLES FOR MAKING NETS.



INDIAN'S TRAP.

was received with great honor, and he who had gone away a poor Venetian pilot was now called "the Great Admiral," and dressed himself in silks, after the manner of great men of that time.

The next year, accompanied by his son Sebastian, he set sail with a much larger expedition, to find his way to Japan or China. After going far to the north, he sailed along what is now the coast of Canada and the United States as far to the south as North Carolina. But, as he did not find the riches of Asia, the English appear to have lost much of their interest in Western voyages. There is no account of John Cabot's second return, nor do we know anything about him after his sailing to America the second time. His son Sebastian, who was a great geographer, and who lived to be very old, seems to have always spoken of the voyages as though he had made them alone, but we now know that it was John Cabot who discovered North America.

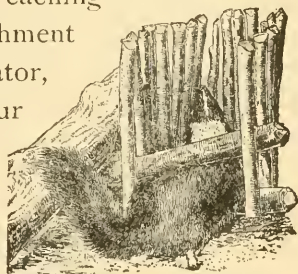


"A GREAT MAN OF THAT TIME,"

Second voyage
of the Cabots.

Five years after Columbus sailed to America, a Portuguese expedition, under Vasco da Gama, succeeded in sailing round the Cape of Good Hope, and reaching Calcutta in India. This was the accomplishment of the dream of Prince Henry the Navigator, who had at this time been dead thirty-four years. It was still believed that America was a part of Asia, and that Columbus's discovery had opened another road to the

Da Gama
doubles the Cape
of Good Hope.



CAUGHT IN AN INDIAN TRAP.



THIS MAP SHOWS HOW COLUMBUS FOUND AMERICA IN TRYING TO GET TO ASIA.
IT ALSO SHOWS THE VOYAGES OF DA GAMA AND MAGELLAN.

Indies. It was not till after the death of Columbus that people began to suspect that the newly discovered lands were not parts of Asia.

Balboa discovers
the Pacific.

The Pacific Ocean was discovered at the west of America, in 1513, by Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, while this explorer was leading a Spanish expedition in Central America. An Indian chief's son, seeing the Spaniards quarreling over the gold they had got, and perhaps wishing to rid his own country of them, told them that, since they were so fond of gold, he could show them an ocean, on the shores of which was the great kingdom of Peru, rich in that metal. Balboa crossed the isthmus, and, wading full-armed into the waters of "The South Sea," as he called the Pacific, took possession of the ocean and all the countries on its coasts for the King and Queen of Spain.

Magellan's expe-
dition around
the world.



MAGELLAN.

It now became a question of finding a way through or around America, so as to come to the rich trade with India, which the Portuguese had reached by the way of the Cape of Good Hope. The Spaniards accomplished this by an expedition under an explorer named Magellan. Fernando Magellan was a native of Portugal. He served the Portuguese government in the East Indies, and was in the expedition that discovered some of the Spice Islands. Having received a slight from the Portuguese government, he renounced

his country and entered the service of the King of Spain. He sailed on his famous voyage in September, 1519, with five ships. It was not known then that one could pass around Cape Horn, but South America was thought to reach to the south pole, and Magellan was therefore intent on finding some way of getting through that continent. On the coast of South America he lost one of his vessels, and suppressed a mutiny. In October, 1520, he entered the straits that bear his name. His men were very reluctant to go on, and one ship turned back out of the channel and sailed home. With the three ships left he entered the Pacific. At the Philippine Islands he was killed in a battle with the natives, and many of his men were massacred. Only one of his ships, the *Victoria*, succeeded in getting around the world, and she had but eighteen men left alive when she got back, and they were sick and almost starving. This was the first voyage around the globe.

But Magellan's route was too long a course for trade, and many other navigators sailed up and down the American coast, expecting to find some passage by which they could get through the continent to go to China, India, and Japan. They did not understand that America was a continent; they believed that it might prove to be cut through in some places by straits, like Magellan's, if they could only find them. Several great English navigators tried to discover what they called the Northwest Passage, by sailing along the coast of Labrador and into the rivers and bays of America, while the French thought to get through to China by passing up the river St. Lawrence and through the great lakes at its head.



SPANISH EXPLORER.

Other explorers
seek the North-
west Passage.

Colonies proposed.

For a long time after Cabot's discovery, nobody in England thought it worth while to send colonies to North America, which was regarded only as a bar to all attempts to reach Asia by the west. But, the colonists sent from Spain having found gold in great quantities in Mexico and South America, the English at length began to think of settling colonies in North America, to look for gold there also. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Martin Frobisher and Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who were both great seekers after a northwest passage to India, united this with a search after gold, and they even made some feeble attempts to plant colonies on the North American coast. But it was not until that very great

man, Sir Walter Raleigh, undertook the work, that any wise or hopeful beginning was made in colonization by the English.



SIR WALTER RALEGH.

CHAPTER III.

SIR WALTER RALEGH TRIES TO SETTLE A COLONY IN AMERICA.

Raleigh's colony chartered.

If it had not been for the interest which Sir Walter Raleigh took in plans for settling America, we might never have had a nation of English-speaking people in this country. Raleigh was one of the most brilliant and one of the most ambitious men at the court of Queen Elizabeth, as he certainly was one of the most gifted men

of that brilliant time. While yet young, he fought for years on the side of the Huguenots in the French civil wars, and afterward took part in the war in Ireland. On his return from Ireland, he is said to have won the queen's favor by throwing his new plush cloak into a muddy place in the road for her to walk on. It is certain that by some means he rose rapidly at court. Having received from Queen Elizabeth a charter which gave him a large territory in America, he sent out an exploring expedition in 1584, ninety-two years after the discovery by Columbus. Eighty-seven years had passed since John Cabot, in an English ship, first discovered the coast of North America, which had lain all this time unexplored, a mystery and a puzzle to the Old World.

Raleigh's expedition was commanded by two captains named Amidas and Barlowe. They landed on that part of the coast which we now call North Carolina. The country pleased them very much. They were especially wonder-struck at the surpassing abundance of wild grapes for which the North Carolina coast has always been famous, and they tell of great vines "climbing toward the tops of high cedars." To the first Indian they encountered, they presented a shirt and a hat, in which garments he probably felt very fine, for he rowed a little way off from the ship and fell to fishing with his rude tackle, and when he had almost swamped his canoe with fish, he divided them between the white men in the two ships. An Indian chief who visited the ships fancied a bright tin dish more than anything else the white men had. Having procured it by exchange, he made a hole in it, and hung it on his breast as an ornament.

Raleigh sends out
an expedition.

The expedition
returns.

Raleigh's expedition stayed about six weeks in the New World, and, everything here being strange to the eyes of the explorers, they fell into many mistakes in trying to describe what they saw and heard. When they got back to England, they declared that the part of America they had seen was the paradise of the world.

Virginia named.

Raleigh was much encouraged by the accounts which his two captains gave of the new country they had found. It was named Virginia at this time, in honor of Queen Elizabeth, who was often called the "Virgin Queen." But the name Virginia, which we apply to two of our States, was then used for all the territories claimed by the English in America—that is to say, for the whole coast of the United States between Maine and Georgia, so far as it was known.

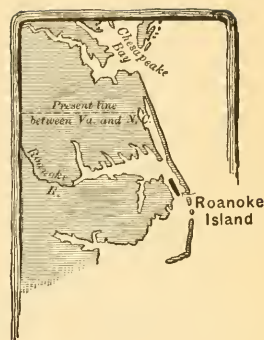


QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Raleigh's first
colony.

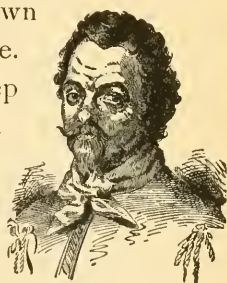
In 1585, the year after the return of the first expedition, Raleigh sent out a colony to remain in America. Sir Richard Grenville, a famous seaman, had command of this expedition; but he soon returned to England, leaving the colony in charge of Ralph Lane. There were no women in Ralph Lane's company. They made their settlement on Roanoke Island, which lies near to the coast of North Carolina, and they explored the mainland in many directions. They spent much time in trying to find gold, and they seem to have thought that the shell-beads worn by the Indians were pearls. Like all

the others who came to America in that time, they were very desirous of finding a way to get across America, which they believed to be very narrow. They hoped to reach the Pacific Ocean, and so open a new way of sailing to China and the East Indies.



The Indians by this time were tired of the white men, and anxious to be rid of them. They told Lane that the Roanoke River came out of a rock so near to a sea at the west that the water sometimes dashed from the sea into the river, making the water of the river salt. Lane believed this story, and set out with most of his men to find a sea at the head of the river. Long before they got to the head of the Roanoke their provisions gave out. But Lane made a brave speech to his men, and they resolved to go on. Having nothing else to eat, they killed their two dogs, and cooked the meat with sassafras-leaves to give it a relish. When this meat was exhausted, they got into their boats and ran swiftly down the river, having no food to eat on the way home. Lane got back to Roanoke Island just in time to keep the Indians from killing the men he had left there.

Lane tries to find the Pacific Ocean.



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

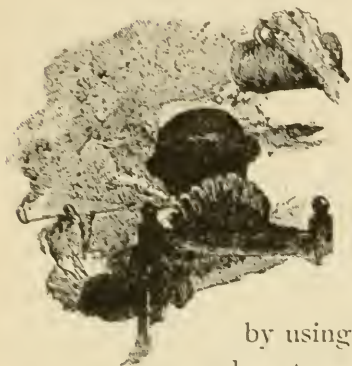
Unluckily, the colony at this time had an unexpected visitor. Sir Francis Drake, one of the greatest of the naval commanders, who, in a previous voyage, had discovered the coast of California, and sailed round the globe in the track of Magellan, had been about this time attacking the Spanish in the West Indies. On his return he put in at Roanoke Island to inquire after the colony. He furnished the company on the island with a ship and with whatever

The colony returns to England with Sir Francis Drake.

else they needed. But, while he remained at Roanoke, a storm arose which drove to sea the ship he had given to Lane. This so discouraged the colonists that they returned to England in Drake's ships.

Tobacco brought
to England.

Ralph Lane and his companions were the first to carry tobacco into England. They learned from the Indians to smoke it in Indian fashion, by drawing the smoke into their mouths and puffing it out through their nostrils. Raleigh adopted the practice, and many distinguished men and women followed his example. The use of tobacco was greatly promoted by an erroneous opinion of the time that it had great medicinal virtue. Some of the first tobacco-pipes in England were made



by using a walnut-shell for the bowl of the pipe and a straw for the stem. It is related that, when

Raleigh's servant first saw his master with the smoke coming from his nose, he thought him to be on fire, and poured a pitcher of ale, which he was fetching, over Sir Walter's head, to put the fire out.

Raleigh's second
colony.

Raleigh set to work, with the help of others, to send out another colony. This time he sent women and children, as well as men, intending to make a permanent settlement. The governor of this company was John White, an artist, who had been with Lane's colony. White made many interesting drawings of the people, plants, and animals of the country, and some of his drawings are still preserved in London. In the chapters of this book devoted to the Indians are some pictures made from White's drawings. Soon after White's company

had settled themselves on Roanoke Island, an English child was born. This little girl, being the first English child born in Virginia, was named Virginia Dare.

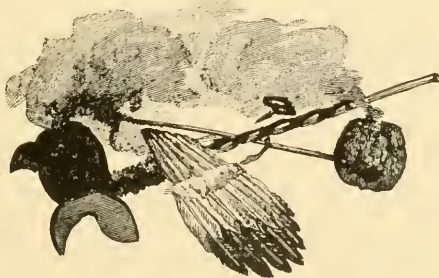
John White, the governor of the colony, who was Virginia Dare's grandfather, went back to England for supplies. He was detained by the war with Spain, and, when he got back to Roanoke Island, the colony had disappeared. Raleigh had spent so much money already that he was forced to give up the attempt to plant a colony in America. But he sent several times to seek for the lost people of his second colony, without finding them. Twenty years after John White left them, it was said that seven of them were still alive among the Indians of North Carolina.

Raleigh's second colony disappears.

After the failure of White's colony, Raleigh engaged in the defense of England against the Spanish Armada. On the accession of James I, he was thrown into the Tower of London, where he was kept for more than twelve years, and then released. In 1618 King James had this great man put to death to please the King of Spain. When Raleigh was about to be beheaded, he felt of the edge of the axe, and said, "It is a sharp medicine to cure me of all my diseases." He was a great soldier, a great statesman, a great seaman, an excellent historian, and a charming poet. He is said to have first planted the potato in Ireland. But our interest in him here arises

Death of Raleigh

INDIAN PIPE
DECORATED
WITH FEATHERS.



PIPE, MADE OF THE
SHELL OF THE
ENGLISH WALNUT.

from the fact that his was the first colony of English people that was ever actually landed in this country, and his experiments first showed the true way of planting colonies in North America.



JAMES I.

Motives to colony-planting.

Gosnold's colony.

CHAPTER IV.

HOW JAMESTOWN WAS SETTLED.

AFTER the total disappearance of Raleigh's second colony, Englishmen were for a while too much engrossed in the war with Spain and their own politics to give any attention to the peopling of "Virginia," as they called the coast of North America. But the stories of a virgin land, where grapes grew wild, which Raleigh's ships had brought back, probably kept alive the desire to plant a colony. Then, too, Spain, the great enemy of England at that time, was deriving vast wealth from the silver-mines of Mexico and South America, and men asked why England should not find silver and gold in the unexplored wilderness of northern America.

In 1602, sixteen years after Raleigh had sent his second colony, Bartholomew Gosnold, a navigator of the west of England, tried to plant a colony. He sailed to the coast of New England, and gave to Cape Cod the name it bears now, and then, following the example of Raleigh's people, he selected an island on the coast for his colony. The island chosen was that now known as Cuttyhunk.

This island contains a large pond, and in this pond is a small island, and on this little island Gosnold thought that with twenty men he might be safe from the attacks of the savages. Like a set of Crusoes, they proceeded to build a flat-bottomed boat to ply about the pond; then they dug a cellar, and built a house on the little island, thatching the roof with grass. But there sprang up a quarrel about the division of the profits on the furs they had bought from the Indians and the sassafras they had dug, and so the whole company returned to England, and the coast of New England lay without an English inhabitant for eighteen years longer.

Gosnold's colony fails.

But Gosnold did not lie idle. The great thought of planting a new nation in America had taken possession of this sea-captain, as it had before of the brilliant imagination of Raleigh. Joining himself with some of the merchants who had been partners in Sir Walter's last venture, and others, Gosnold succeeded in forming what was generally called "The Virginia Company." This company sent to America the colony that made the first permanent beginning of English settlement in this country.

The Virginia Company.

It was in the stormy December of 1606 that the little colony set out. There were, of course, no steamships then; and the vessels they had were clumsy, small, and slow. The largest of the three ships that carried out the handful of people which began the settlement of the United States was named "Susan Constant." She was of a hundred tons burden. Not many ships so small cross the ocean to-day. But the "God-speed" which went along with her was not half so big, and the smallest of the three was a little pinnace of only twenty tons, called "Discovery."

Departure of the colony.



A MERCHANT OF THE VIRGINIA COMPANY.

The voyage,
and the arrival
in Virginia.

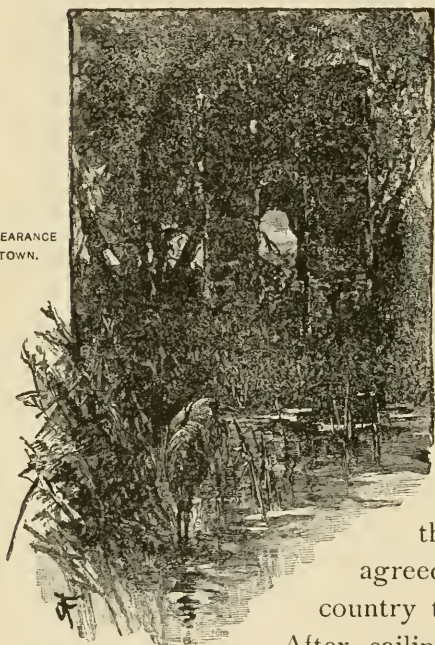
On account of storms, these feeble ships were not able to get out of sight of the English coast for six weeks. People in that time were afraid to sail straight across the unknown Atlantic Ocean; they went away south by the Canary Islands and the West Indies, and so made the distance twice as great as it ought to have been. It took the new colony about four months to get from London to Virginia. They intended to land on Roanoke Island, where Raleigh's unfortunate colonies had been settled, but a storm drove them into a large river, which they

called "James River," in honor of the king. They arrived in Virginia in the month of April, when the banks of the river were covered with flowers. Great white dog-wood blossoms and masses of bright-colored red-bud are in bloom all along the James River at this season. It is not surprising, therefore, that the newcomers should declare

that heaven and earth had agreed together to make this a country to live in.

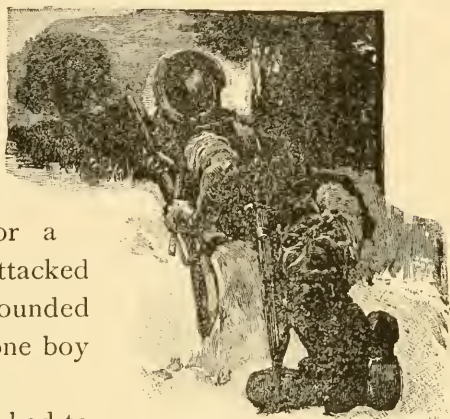
After sailing up and down the river to examine the country, they selected for their dwelling-place a low-lying but pleasant-looking peninsula, which, by the action of the water, has since become an island. They named this place Jamestown. They had delayed

PRESENT APPEARANCE
OF JAMESTOWN.



Settlement at
Jamestown.

so long that their supply of food was pretty well consumed, and it was too late to plant, even if they had had cleared ground. They had brought the wrong kind of people; most of them were "gentlemen" unused to work, and unfit for such hardships as now befell them. One small ladleful of pottage, made of worm-eaten barley or wheat, was all that was given to a man for a meal. The settlers were attacked by the Indians, who wounded seventeen men and killed one boy in the fight.



Many of the colonists perish.

Each man in Jamestown had to take his turn every third night in watching against the Indians, lying on the cold, bare ground all night. The only water to drink was that from the river, which was bad. The people were soon nearly all of them sick; there were not five able-bodied men to defend the place had it been attacked. Sometimes as many as three or four died in a single night, and sometimes the living were hardly able to bury those who had died. There were about a hundred colonists landed at Jamestown, and one half of these died in the first few months. All this time the men in Jamestown were living in wretched tents and poor little hovels covered with earth, and some of them even in holes dug into the ground. As the sickness passed away, those who remained built themselves better cabins, and thatched the roofs with straw.

Adventures of
Captain John
Smith.



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

One of the most industrious men in the colony at this time was Captain John Smith, a young man who had had many adventures, of which he was fond of boasting. Born in England in 1579, he went into the wars in the Netherlands while he was little more than a boy. He was afterward shipwrecked, robbed, and in great peril from want in France. He was, he tells us, thrown overboard by superstitious pilgrims in a storm, as a kind of Jonah, but, finding no whale to save him, he managed to swim ashore. The Turks and Christians were at that time fighting in the east of Europe, and all sorts of adventurers sought these wars, among the rest this roving young John Smith. Here, if we may believe his

own account of himself, he introduced a new way of signaling from one part of the army to another, and invented a destructive kind of fire-works. One day, while the Christians were besieging a town, a Turk rode out and challenged any Christian to fight him in mortal combat, for the amusement of the ladies, who found the time pass heavily, no doubt, in a besieged city. Ladies in that day, whether Turks or Christians, liked these bloody encounters. Smith engaged the Turk and killed him, as he did another the next day, and then a third. For this success, Smith was granted a coat of arms bearing three Turks' heads in a shield.

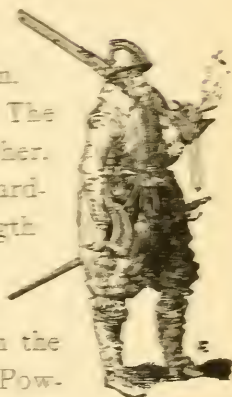
Smith among the
Turks.

He was at length made prisoner by the Turks and reduced to galling slavery, from which he escaped by beating out his master's brains with a flail, dressing himself in his master's clothes, mounting his horse, and

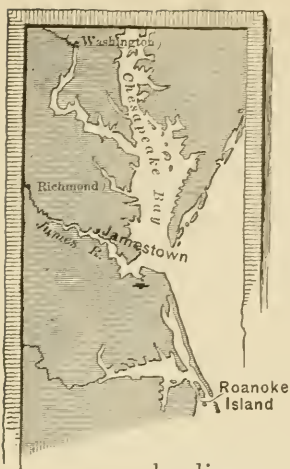
getting off into the wilderness with a sack of wheat for food, and so making his way into Russia, after sixteen days of wandering. After other adventures, he got back to England, still a young man. With a liking for bold undertakings, it was natural that he should join the new colony setting sail for Virginia.

In Virginia he followed the same adventurous career. He took the little pinnace "Discovery" and sailed up and down the rivers and bays of Virginia, exploring the country, getting acquainted with many tribes of Indians, and exchanging beads, bells, and other trinkets for corn, with which he kept the Jamestown people from starving. In one of these trips he was attacked by the Indians, who killed ten of his men and made him prisoner. But he interested the savages in his pocket-compass, which was a great mystery to them, and so diverted them from putting him to death. The Indians led him from one of their villages to another, probably to satisfy the curiosity of their people regarding this strange captive. He was brought at length to Powhatan, the head chief of about thirty tribes, who after a while set him free and sent him back to Jamestown. During this captivity he won the friendship of Pocahontas, one of the daughters of Powhatan. She was then about ten or eleven years old, and Captain Smith greatly admired her. Many years afterward he said that Powhatan had at one time ordered his brains beaten out, and that, when his head was laid upon a stone for that purpose, Pocahontas had put her arms about his neck and saved his life. The story is so pretty and romantic that one does not like to disbelieve it.

Smith captured
by the Indians.



A SOLDIER
WITH MATCH-LOCK GUN
AND LIGHTED FUSE.



Captain Smith as
explorer and gov-
ernor.

John Smith was the first to explore Chesapeake Bay, which he did in two voyages, enduring many hardships with cheerfulness. When it was cold, Smith and his men would move their fire two or three times of a night, that they might have the warm ground to lie upon. He managed the Indians well, getting corn for the settlers; he contrived to put down several mutinies at Jamestown, and rendered many other services to the colony. He was the

leading man in the settlement, and came at length to be governor. But when many hundreds of new settlers were brought out under men who were his enemies, and Smith had been injured by an explosion of gunpowder, he gave up the government and went back to England. He afterward explored the coast north of Cape Cod, and named that country New England. His chief fault was a vanity that led him to make the most of his adventures, which appear to have been romantic enough, even when allowance is made for his proneness to exaggeration in telling them.

CHAPTER V.

THE STARVING TIME, AND WHAT FOLLOWED.

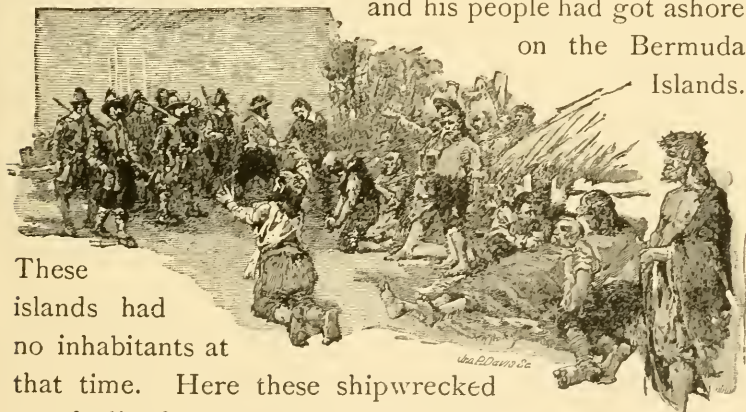
The starving
time.

WHEN Captain John Smith went back to England, in 1609, there were nearly five hundred white people in Virginia. But the settlers soon got into trouble with the

Indians, who lay in the woods and killed every one that ventured out. There was no longer any chance to buy corn, and the food was soon exhausted. The starving people ate the hogs, the dogs, and the horses, even to their skins. Then they ate rats, mice, snakes, toadstools, and whatever they could get that might stop their hunger. A dead Indian was presently eaten, and, as their hunger grew more extreme, the people were forced to consume their own dead. Starving men wandered off into the woods and died there; their companions, finding them, devoured them as hungry wild beasts might have done. This was always afterward remembered as "the starving time."

Along with the people who came at the close of John Smith's time, there had been sent another ship-load of people, with Sir Thomas Gates, a new governor for the colony. This vessel had been shipwrecked, but Gates and his people had got ashore on the Bermuda Islands.

Sir Thomas Gates
wrecked on the
Bermuda Islands.



These islands had no inhabitants at that time. Here these shipwrecked people lived well on wild hogs. When spring came, they built two little vessels of the cedar-trees which grew on the island. These they rigged with sails taken from their wrecked ships, and, getting

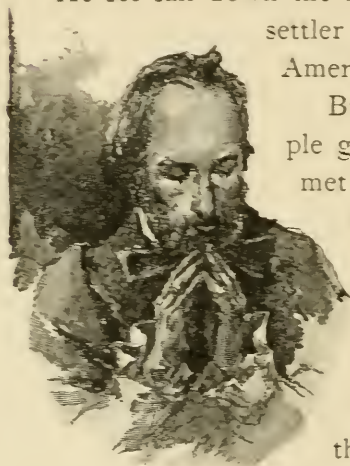
their people aboard, they made their way to Jamestown.

Gates reaches
Jamestown.

When they got there, they found alive but sixty of the four hundred and ninety people left in Virginia in the autumn before, and these sixty would all have died had Gates been ten days later in coming. The food that Gates brought would barely last them sixteen days. So he put the Jamestown people aboard his little cedar ships, intending to sail to Newfoundland in hope of there falling in with some English fishing-vessels.

He set sail down the river, leaving not one English settler on the whole continent of America.

Arrival of De la
Warr.



But, before Gates and his people got out of James River, they met a boat rowing up toward them. Lord De la Warr, whose name we now write Delaware, had been sent out from England as governor of Virginia. From some Englishmen stationed at the mouth of the river he had learned that Gates and all the

people were coming down. He immediately sent his long-boat to turn them back again. On a Sunday morning De la Warr landed at Jamestown, which looked like some ancient ruin, because the wretched people had burned many of the palisades and cabins for fire-wood. De la Warr's first act was to kneel upon the shore awhile in prayer. Then he went to the little church, where he took possession of the government,

and rebuked the people for the idleness that had brought them so much suffering.

But Lord De la Warr held to the notion of the time, that there must be gold in almost every mountain in America; so he wasted time in trying to penetrate to the mountains for gold, and in building a fort higher up the river, where Richmond now stands, which was abandoned as soon as finished. A great sickness prevailed, and a hundred and fifty of the colonists died. Lord De la Warr, finding himself very ill, left the colony, to the great discouragement of the people.

De la Warr's
government.

The next year Sir Thomas Dale took charge, and he remained in Virginia for five years, part of the time as governor-in-chief and part of the time as second in command under Sir Thomas Gates. Dale was a soldier, and ruled with extreme severity. He forced the idle settlers to labor, he drove away some of the Indians and settled new towns, and he built fortifications. But the people hated him for his savage harshness. He punished men by flogging, and by setting them to work in irons for years. Those who rebelled in desperation, or tried to run away from their misery, were caught and put to death in barbarous ways. Some were burned alive, others tortured by being broken on the wheel, and one man for merely stealing food to satisfy his hunger was chained up in a cruel way and left to starve to death.

Sir Thomas Dale

Powhatan, the head chief of the neighboring tribes, gave the colony a great deal of trouble during the first part of Dale's time. His daughter Pocahontas, who as a child had often played with the boys within the palisades of Jamestown, and had shown herself friendly to

The capture
of Pocahontas.
Her marriage.

Captain Smith and others in their trips among the Indians, was now a woman grown. While she was visiting a chief named Japazaws, an



PORTRAIT OF
POCAHONTAS.

Pocahontas in
England.

Tobacco first
raised in Vir-
ginia.

English captain named Argall bribed that chief with a copper kettle to betray her into his hands. Argall took her a captive to Jamestown. Here a white man by the name of John Rolfe married her, after she had received Christian baptism. This marriage brought about a peace between Powhatan and the English settlers in Virginia.

When Dale went back to England in 1616 he took with him some of the Indians. Poca-

hontas, who was now called "the Lady Rebecca," and her husband went to England with Dale. Pocahontas was called a "princess" in England, and received much attention. But when about to start back to the colony she died, leaving a little son.

One of the first requisites for the success of a colony is some commodity that may be exported to pay for clothing and those other necessities of life which must be bought from older countries. The attempts to find gold or silver in Virginia had proved vain. Silk, cotton, and many other things were attempted at James-

town from the very start, but the only product that was found really profitable was tobacco. This "weed," as it was even then called, was, like Indian corn and the potato, unknown to Europe until after America was discovered. It was introduced under the belief that it was of great value as a medicine. When Raleigh had made its use fashionable in England, the English people bought their tobacco from Spain. But John Rolfe, the same who married Pocahontas, and who seems to have been fond of new experiments, thought that, if the Virginia Indians could grow tobacco for their own use, he might grow it in Virginia for the English market. He tried tobacco-culture in 1612, and it was immediately so suc-



GETTING READY TO GO TO VIRGINIA; SHOWING THE DRESS OF PEOPLE IN THAT TIME.

cessful that tobacco became in three or four years the money by which trade was carried on and debts paid, and it remained the recognized currency of Virginia and Maryland for about a hundred and fifty years. Tobacco

brought a large price in 1612 and for years afterward, and, as it furnished the first means by which people in Virginia might gain a living, it helped to make the colony successful. But in 1616, when Dale gave up the government, there were only about three hundred and fifty English people in Virginia, and none besides in North America.

CHAPTER VI.

THE GREAT CHARTER OF VIRGINIA, AND THE FIRST MASSACRE BY THE INDIANS.

Living and working in common.



ENGLISH COUNTRYMAN
AT THAT TIME.

DURING all the early years of the Virginia colony the people were fed and clothed out of a common stock of provisions. They were also obliged to work for this stock. No division was made of the land, nor could the industrious man get any profit by his hard work. The laziest man was as well off as the one who worked hardest, and under this arrangement men neglected their work, and the colony was always poor. The colonists had been promised that after five years they should have land of their own and be free, but this promise was not kept. In 1614 Sir Thomas Dale gave to some who had been longest in Virginia three acres of ground apiece, and allowed them one month in the year to work on their little patches. For this they must support themselves and give the rest of their work to the common stock. Even this arrangement made them more industrious. But the cruel military laws put in force by the

governor made Virginia so unpopular that men sentenced to be hanged for petty felonies refused pardon when offered to them on condition of their going to the colony.

Argall, who came after Dale, was a greedy rascal, who governed very badly, and Virginia was almost ruined. In 1618 many new emigrants came out, and Lord De la Warr was again sent as governor, but he died on the way. The "Virginia Company," of London, which had the government of the colony about this time, began to come under the control of certain great statesmen with liberal ideas. Among them was Sir Edwin Sandys and the Earl of Southampton. These men were engaged in Parliament in resisting the tyranny of King James's government, and in trying to establish liberty in England. This was slow work in an old country where the sovereign had long had almost absolute power. But Southampton and Sandys and their friends probably thought it best to begin rightly in Virginia, and so to make that country a refuge for those who suffered from oppression in England. The Virginia Company, taking advantage of the power which the king had given to it, granted to Virginia, in November, 1618, a "Great Charter," under which the people of the colony were allowed a voice in making their own laws. This was the beginning of free government in America. Under the charter the government of Virginia was put into the hands of a governor, a "council of estate," and a "General Assembly." The members of the General Assembly were chosen to represent the different settlements or "boroughs" in Virginia. The other American colonies afterward took pattern from this threefold government.

The Great Charter of 1618.



COUNTRYWOMAN
OF THE TIME.

Features of the
charter govern-
ment that re-
main.

The government of the United States by a President, a Senate, and a House of Representatives shows that the ideas put into the Great Charter have left their mark on the Constitution of our country. The governments of all our States also show traces of the same idea. Each State has a governor, a Senate, and a House of Representatives. So that the plan arranged in 1618 for a few hundred people in Virginia was a tiny stream that has spread out into a great river.

Division of land
in Virginia.

The Great Charter also gave the people of Virginia the right to divide the land into farms, and to own and work ground each for himself. When the new governor, Sir George Yeardley, got to Virginia in the spring of 1619, bringing this good news that the settlers were to live under laws of their own making, were to cultivate their own land, and enjoy the fruits of their own labors, they thought themselves the happiest people in the world.

Sending of wives
to Virginia.

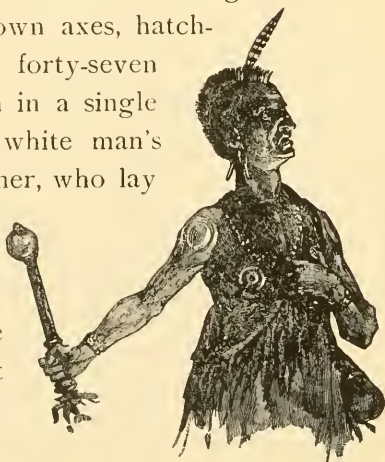
At this time there were but few women in Virginia, and none of the men intended to remain there long. It was thought that the colony would be more firmly planted if the colonists had wives. Young women were therefore sent out to be married to the settlers. But, before any man could marry one of these, he was obliged to gain her consent, and to pay the cost of her passage, which was about a hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco. This venture proved very satisfactory to the Virginians, and ship-loads of women were therefore sent for wives from time to time for years afterward. When the colonists had land and houses of their own, with wives and children, they felt themselves at home in America, and no longer thought of going back to England.

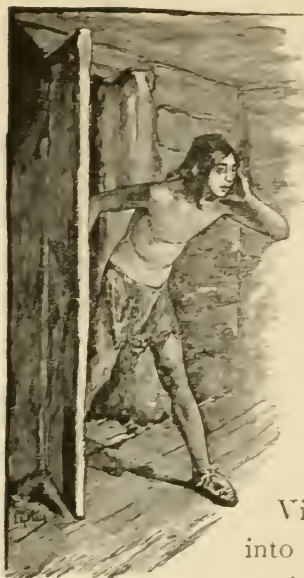
Before this there had been a good many small wars and troubles of one kind or other with the Indians. But, as the Indians had few fire-arms, the white men could easily defend themselves. After 1619 many efforts were made to civilize and convert the savages. Money was given to educate their children, and a college was planned for them. To conciliate Opechankano, who was brother to Powhatan and had succeeded him, the white people built that chief a house. Nothing about this dwelling interested its owner so much as the lock, which was a great novelty to him. He took delight in locking and unlocking the door many times a day.

One ambitious Indian brave, whom the white people called "Jack of the Feather," and who was believed to be proof against bullets, was suspected of wishing war. At length he killed a white man, and the white man's servants, in trying to take him to the governor, shot him. The Indians did not show any resentment at his death at first, and Opechankano said that the sky might fall sooner than he would break the peace. But on the 22d of March, 1622, while the men of the colony were in the fields, the Indians suddenly fell on the settlements, killing the white people mostly with their own axes, hatchets, and hoes. Three hundred and forty-seven men, women, and children were slain in a single day. One Indian lad, living in a white man's house, had been notified by his brother, who lay down by him during the night, that the massacre would take place the next day, and that he was expected to slay the man in whose house he dwelt, whose name was Pace. But

Indian troubles

"Jack of the
Feather."





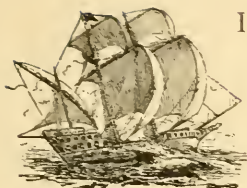
The Virginia Company dissolved.

the boy could not bear to kill his benefactor, and when his brother had gone he got up and warned Mr. Pace of the impending danger. Pace hastened to Jamestown and notified the governor, so that some of the settlements had time to put themselves in a state of defense. From this time there was almost continual war with the Indians for many years.

King James did not like the Virginia Company after it passed into the hands of those who wished to establish the liberties of the people, and he made many efforts to get it out of their control. In 1624 the company was dissolved, and the colony was put under the government of the king. But the king, when he put down the Virginia Company, promised to the colony all the liberties which they then enjoyed. This promise was not well kept by his successors in after-years; the Virginians were often oppressed by the governors sent to them, and in 1639 one Kemp, the secretary of the colony, seems to have run away to England with the Great Charter of 1618, of which no copy can now be found. But the right to pass laws in the General Assembly was never quite taken away.

CHAPTER VII.

THE COMING OF THE PILGRIMS.



IN the seventeenth century (that is, between the year 1600 and the year 1700) there was much religious persecution. In some countries the Catholics persecuted the Protestants, in other countries the Protest-

ants persecuted the Catholics, and sometimes one kind of Protestant persecuted another. There were people in England who did not like the ceremonies of the Church of England, as established by law. These were called Puritans. Some of these went so far as to separate themselves from the Established Church, and thus got the name of Separatists. They were persecuted in England, and many of them fled to Holland.

Among these were the members of a little Separatist congregation in Scrooby, in the north of England, whose pastor's name was John Robinson. In 1607, the year in which Jamestown was settled, these persecuted people left England and settled in Holland, where they lived about thirteen years, most of the time in the city of Leyden. Then they thought they would like to plant a colony in America, where they could be religious in their own way. These are the people that we call "The Pilgrims," on account of their wanderings for the sake of their religion.

About half of them were to go first. The rest went down to the sea to say farewell to those who were going.



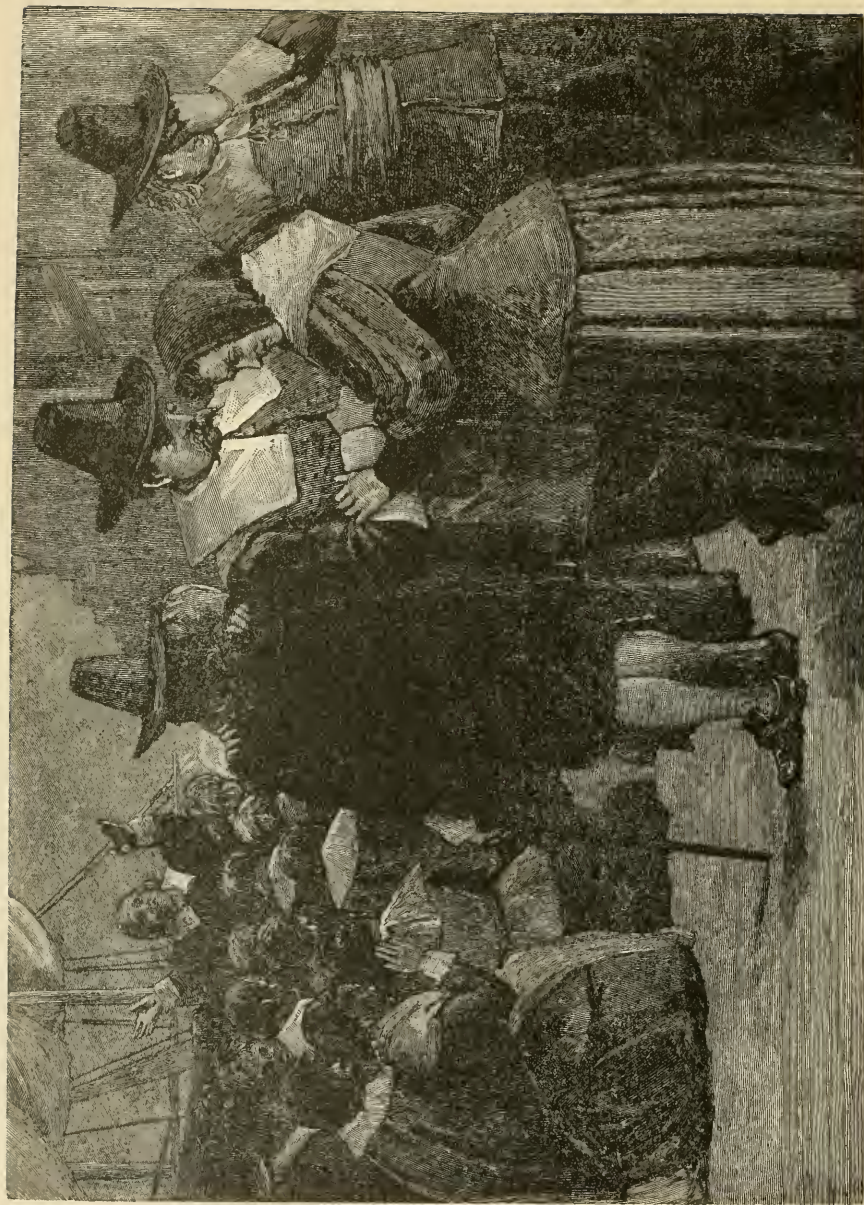
PURITAN OF THE
MIDDLE CLASS.

The Separatists.

The Pilgrims
in Holland.

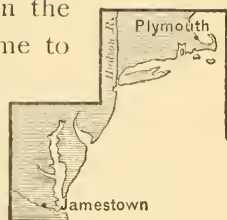


PURITAN OF THE
MIDDLE CLASS.



PILGRIM FAREWELL AT DELFT HAVEN.

It was a sad parting, as they all knelt down on the shore and prayed together. The Pilgrims came to America in a ship called the Mayflower. There were about a hundred of them, and they had a stormy and wretched passage. They intended to go to the Hudson River, but their captain took them to Cape Cod. After exploring the coast north of that cape for some distance, they selected as a place to land a harbor which had been called Plymouth on the map prepared by Captain John Smith, who had sailed along this coast in an open boat in 1614.



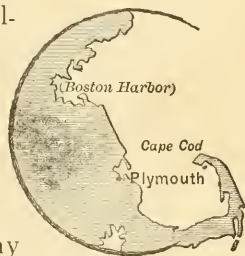
The voyage to America in the Mayflower.

All the Indians who had lived at this place had died a few years before of a pestilence, and the Pilgrims found the Indian fields unoccupied. They first landed at Plymouth on the 11th day of December, 1620, as the days were then counted. This is the same as the 21st of December now, the mode of counting having changed since that time. (Through a mistake, the 22d of December is sometimes kept in New England as "Forefathers' Day.") Before landing, the Pilgrims drew up an agreement by which they promised to be governed.

The landing of the Pilgrims.

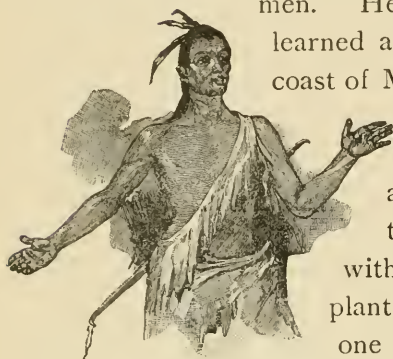
The bad voyage, the poor food with which they were provided, and a lack of good shelter in a climate colder than that from which they came, had their natural effect. Like the first settlers at Jamestown, they were soon nearly all sick. Forty-four out of the hundred Pilgrims died before the winter was ended, and by the time the first year was over half of them were dead. The Pilgrims were afraid of the Indians, some of whom had attacked the first exploring party that had landed. To prevent the savages from finding out how much the colony

Half of the Pilgrims die.



had been weakened by disease, they leveled all the graves, and planted Indian corn over the place in which the dead were buried.

First acquaintance with the Indians.



One day, after the winter was over, an Indian walked into the village and said in English, "Welcome, Englishmen." He was a chief named Samoset, who had learned a little English from the fishermen on the coast of Maine. Samoset afterward brought with him an Indian named Squanto, who had been carried away to England by a cruel captain many years before, and then brought back. Squanto remained with the Pilgrims, and taught them how to plant their corn as the Indians did, by putting one or two fish into every hill for manure.

He taught them many other things, and acted as their interpreter in their trading with the Indians. He told the Indians that they must keep peace with the white men, who had the pestilence stored in their cellar along with the gunpowder! The neighboring chief, Massasoit, was also a good friend to the Pilgrims as long as he lived.

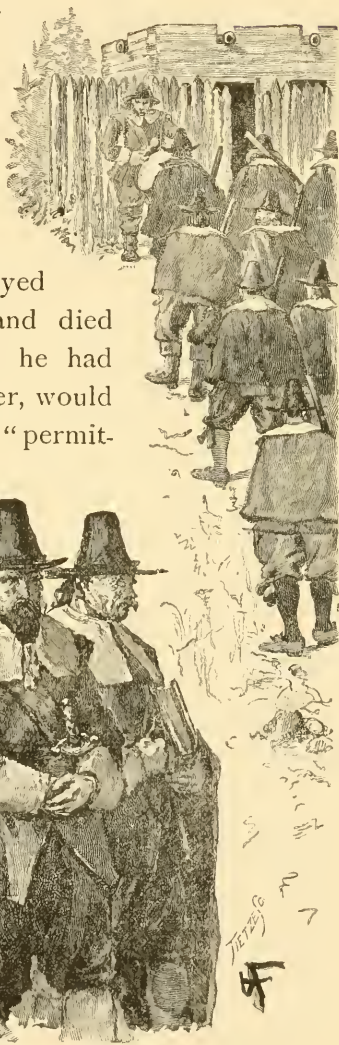
Myles Standish and the Indians.

Captain Myles Standish was the military commander at Plymouth. He dealt severely with any Indians supposed to be hostile. Finding that certain of the Massachusetts Indians were planning to kill all the whites, he and some of his men seized the plotters suddenly and killed them with the knives which the Indians wore suspended from their own necks.

Plymouth united with Massachusetts in 1692.

The people of Plymouth suffered much from scarcity of food for several years. They had often nothing but oysters or clams to eat for a long time together, and no

drink but water. They held their meetings in a square house on top of a hill. On the flat roof of this house were six small cannon. The people were called to church by the beating of a drum. The men marched in procession to church, followed by the governor, the elder or preacher, and Captain Standish. They carried loaded fire-arms with them when they went to meeting on Sunday, and put them where they could reach them easily. The town was surrounded by a stockade, and had three gates. Elder Brewster was the religious teacher of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, their minister, John Robinson, having stayed with those who waited in Holland, and died there. It is said that Brewster, when he had nothing but shell-fish and water for dinner, would cheerfully give thanks that they were "permitted to suck of the abundance of the seas and of the treasures hid in the sand." Like the Jamestown people, they tried a plan of living out of a common stock, but with no better success. In 1624 each family received a small allotment of land for its own, and from that time there was always plenty to eat in Plymouth. Others of the



PILGRIMS ESCORTING THE GOVERNOR,
ELDER BREWSTER, AND MYLES STANDISH TO MEETING.

Pilgrims came to them from Holland, as well as a few emigrants from England. Plymouth Colony was, next to Virginia, the oldest colony of all, but it did not grow very fast, and in 1692, by a charter from King William III, it was united with Massachusetts, of which its territory still forms a part.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE COMING OF THE PURITANS.



OLIVER CROMWELL.

Settlers along
the New Eng-
land coast.

BEFORE the Pilgrims had become comfortably settled in their new home, other English people came to various parts of the New England coast to the northward of Plymouth. About 1623 a few scattering immigrants, mostly fishermen, traders with the Indians, and timber-cutters, began to settle here and there along the sea about Massachusetts Bay, and in what afterward came to be the colonies of New Hampshire and Maine.

The English
Puritans.

We have seen in the preceding chapter that the Pilgrims belonged to that party which had separated itself from the Church of England, and so got the name of Separatists. But there were also a great many people who did not like the ceremonies of the Established Church, but who would not leave it. These were called Puritans, because they sought to purify the Church from what they thought to be wrong. They formed a large part of the English people, and at a later time, under Oliver Cromwell, they got control of England. But at

the time of the settlement of New England the party opposed to the Puritans was in power, and the Puritans were persecuted. The little colony of Plymouth, which had now got through its sufferings, showed them a way out of their troubles. Many of the Puritans began to think of emigration.

In 1628, when Plymouth had been settled almost eight years, the Massachusetts Company was formed. This was a company like the Virginia Company that had governed Virginia at first. The Massachusetts Company was controlled by Puritans, and proposed to make settlements within the territory granted to it in New England. The first party sent out by this company settled at Salem in 1628. Other settlers were sent the next year.

But in 1630 a new and bold move was made. The Massachusetts Company resolved to change the place of holding its meetings from London to its new colony in America. This would give the people in the colony, as members of the company, a right to govern themselves. The principal founder of the Massachusetts Colony and the most remarkable and admirable man among its leaders was John Winthrop, who was born in 1588. He was chosen Governor of the Massachusetts Company in order that he might bring the charter and all the machinery of the government with him to America. When this proposed change became known in England, many of the Puritans desired to go to America. Winthrop, the new governor, set sail for Massachusetts Bay in 1630 with the charter and about a thousand people. The governor and a part of his company settled at Boston, and that became the capital of the colony.



PURITAN GENTLEMAN.

The Massachusetts Company sends out its first colony, 1628.

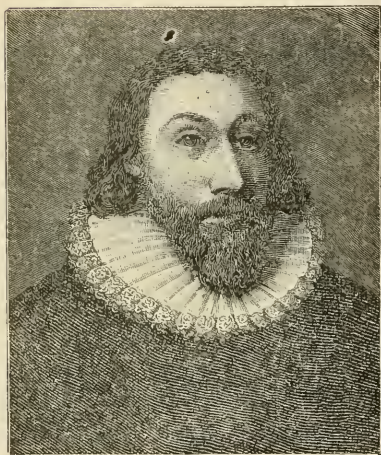
The great migration to Massachusetts, 1630.



PURITAN LADY.

Character of
Winthrop.

Winthrop was almost continually governor until he died, in 1649. He was a man of great wisdom. When another of the leading men in the colony wrote him an angry letter, he sent it back, saying that "he was not willing to keep such a provocation to ill-feeling by him." The writer of the letter answered, "Your overcoming yourself has overcome me." When the colony had little food, and Winthrop's last bread was in the oven, he divided the small remainder of his flour among the poor.



JOHN WINTHROP.

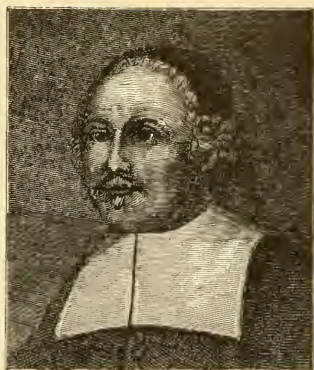
That very day a ship-load of provisions came. Winthrop dressed plainly, drank little but water, and labored with his hands among his servants. He counted it the great comfort of his life that he had a "loving and dutiful son." This son was also named John. He was a man of excellent virtues, and was the first Governor of Connecticut.

None of the colonies was settled more rapidly than Massachusetts. Twenty thousand people came between 1630 and 1640, for

Emigration to
New England.

New England was at this time regarded as a great refuge for the Puritans who suffered persecution in England. The Puritans themselves were not free from the intolerance of the times; and when a new religious party, led by a Mrs. Hutchinson, arose in Boston soon after the settlement, the adherents to the new doctrines were banished for disturbing the peace of the infant colony. About the same time there came the war with the Pequot Indians, about which more will be told in another chapter.

Some of the Puritans in Massachusetts were dissatisfied with their lands. In 1635 and 1636 these people, under the leadership of a great divine named Thomas Hooker, crossed through the unbroken woods to the Connecticut River and settled the towns of Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford. There were already trading-posts on the Connecticut River; but this emigration of Hooker and his friends was the real beginning of the Colony of Connecticut. Another colony was planted in 1638 in the region about New Haven. It was made up of Puritans under the lead of the Rev. John Davenport. In 1665 the New Haven Colony was united with Connecticut.

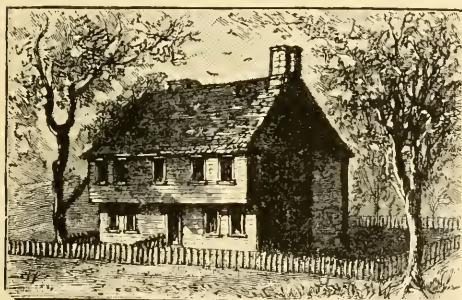


REV. JOHN DAVENPORT.

Connecticut settled, 1636. New Haven Colony settled.

In 1636 Roger Williams, a minister at Salem, in Massachusetts, was banished from that colony on account of his peculiar views on several subjects, religious and political. One of these was the doctrine that every man had a right to worship God without interference by the government, a very strange doctrine in that day. Williams went to the head of Narragansett Bay, and estab-

Roger Williams lays the foundations of Rhode Island, 1636.



HOUSE OF THE FIRST GOVERNOR OF RHODE ISLAND.

lished a settlement on the principle of entire religious liberty. The disputes in Massachusetts resulted in other settlements of banished people on Narragansett Bay,

which were all at length united in one colony, from which came the present State of Rhode Island.

New Hampshire.

The first settlement of New Hampshire was made at Little Harbor, near Portsmouth, in 1623. The population of New Hampshire was increased by those who left the Massachusetts Colony on account of the religious disputes and persecutions there. Other settlers came from England. But there was much confusion and dispute about land-titles and about government, in consequence of which the colony was settled slowly. New Hampshire was several times joined to Massachusetts, but it was finally separated from it in 1741.

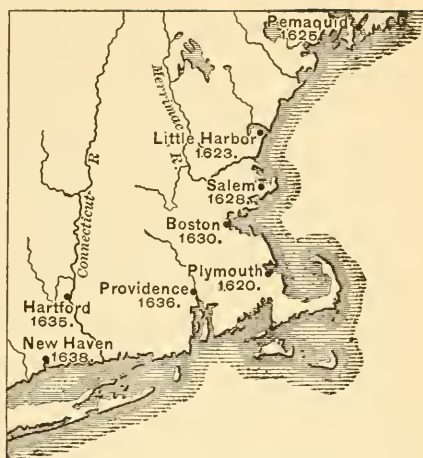
Maine.

As early as 1607, about the time Virginia was settled, a colony was planted in Maine. Like the people who settled Virginia, those who came to Maine in 1607 were looking particularly for gold-mines. The hard winter and other things discouraged them, and they went back the year after they came. Other settlers planted themselves on the coast for a time about 1622 and 1623, but the first permanent settlement seems to have been the one made at Pemaquid in 1625. The pioneers of Maine were not religious refugees, but men interested in the fisheries, the trade with the Indians, and the cutting of timber. They submitted to the government of Massachusetts in 1652; but the "District of Maine," as it was called, suffered disorders from conflicting governments set up under different authorities until it was at length annexed to Massachusetts by the charter given to that colony in 1692. It remained a part of Massachusetts until it was admitted to the Union as a separate State in 1820.



MERCHANT'S WIFE
IN 1820.

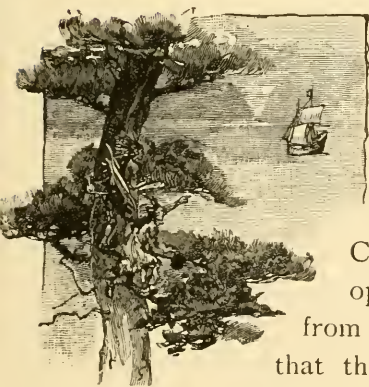
The New England colonies were governed under charters, which left them, in general, free from interference from England. Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Haven, and Rhode Island were the only colonies on the continent that had the privilege of choosing their own governors. In 1684 the first Massachusetts charter was taken away, and after that the governors of Massachusetts were appointed by the king, but under a new charter given in 1692 the colony enjoyed the greater part of its old liberties.



Government in the New England colonies.

CHAPTER IX.

THE COMING OF THE DUTCH.



THE HALF-MOON
IN HUDSON RIVER.

WHILE Captain John Smith was in Virginia (see Chapter IV), he had a notion that there was a passage into the Pacific Ocean somewhere to the north of the Virginia Colony. He may have got this opinion from some old maps, or from misunderstanding something that the Indians told him while he

Captain John Smith sends a map to Hudson

was exploring the Chesapeake Bay. He sent to his old friend Henry Hudson, in England, a letter and a map, which showed a way to go by sea into the Pacific Ocean, a little to the north of Virginia.

Hudson seeks a new route to China.

Henry Hudson was an Englishman already known as a bold explorer. Of his birth and early life nothing is known, nor is anything known of the early voyages by which he became famous. In 1607, in the employ of an English company, he undertook to find the much-desired route to China by sailing straight across the north pole. He failed, of course, though he got farther north than any other voyager had done. In the next year, 1608, for the same company, he tried to find a passage to the East Indies by sailing to the northeast. He did not succeed, but he sets down in his journal that some of his company saw one day a mermaid, with a body like a woman and a tail like a porpoise. Intelligent people believed in such monsters in that day. In 1609, soon after getting John Smith's letter and map, Hudson went to Holland and hired himself to the Dutch East India Company. This company sent him out with a little yacht, called the *Half-Moon*, manned by twenty sailors, to find a passage to China, by going around the north coast of Europe—a passage only discovered in our own time. But Hudson found the sea in that direction so full of ice that he was obliged to give up the attempt to get to China in that way. So, remembering John Smith's map, he set sail for America, contrary to the orders of his employers.



DUTCH COUNTRY PEOPLE
OF OLD TIMES.

Hudson explored Hudson River.

Hudson sailed as far to the south as the entrance to the Chesapeake, and then explored the coast to the

northward. He went into Delaware Bay, and afterward came to anchor in New York Harbor. In hope of finding a way to the East Indies, he kept on up the river, which we now call Hudson River, for eleven days. But when he had sailed up its lovely reaches, and had passed through the bold highlands into the upper waters and so on, in view of the Catskills, nearly as far as to the place where Albany is now, Hudson became satisfied that the road to China did not lie there and so he turned his ship about, sailed down the river, and returned to Europe. In the year following he tried to find a way to China by the northwest, but, while sailing in what is now called Hudson Bay, part of his crew rose against him, and, putting Hudson and some of his men into an open boat, sailed away, leaving them to perish.

Though Hudson was an Englishman, he made his voyage into Hudson River for the Dutch, and the very next year the Dutch merchants began a fur-trade with the Indians on the river that Hudson had discovered. In the year that followed (1611) they explored the coast northeastward beyond Boston Harbor, and to the southward they sailed into the Delaware River, claiming all this country, which was then without any inhabitants but Indians. They called this territory New Netherland. Netherland is another name for what we call Holland.

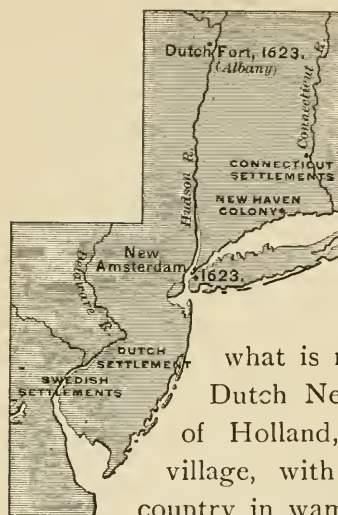
The Dutch had built a trading-post, called a "fort," at what is now Albany, and perhaps others like it elsewhere, but they did not send out a colony of people to settle the country until 1623. Then two principal set-



DUTCH WOMEN OF OLD TIMES.

The Dutch establish a fur-trade on Hudson River.

The Dutch plant a colony in New Netherland.



Planting of New Sweden, and its conquest by the Dutch.



PETER STUYVESANT.

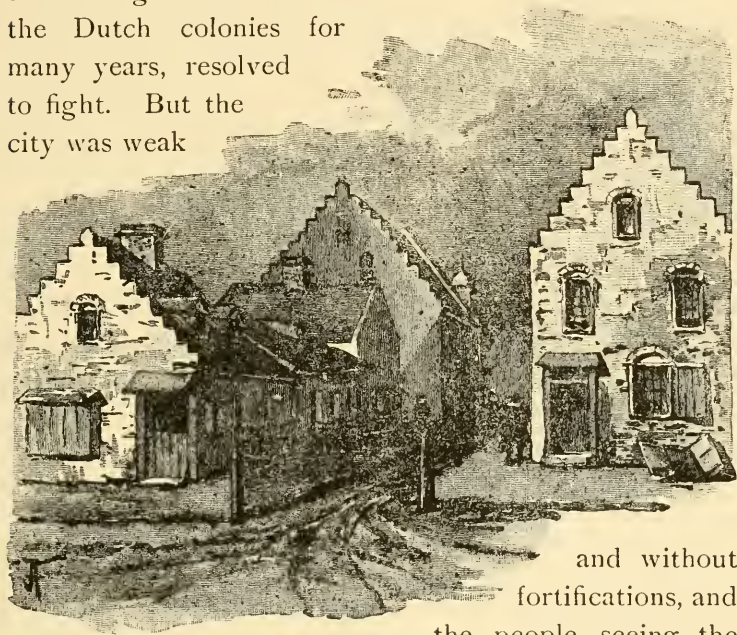
tlements were made, the one at Albany, the other at Wallabout, now part of Brooklyn. But the island of Manhattan, on which New York now stands, had been the center of the Dutch trade, and it soon became the little capital of the colony. The town which grew about the fort, that stood at the south end of

what is now New York city, was called by the Dutch New Amsterdam, after the principal city of Holland, their own country. It was a thrifty village, with a considerable trade with the Indian country in wampum, smoked oysters, and beaver-skins.

The Dutch also had trading-posts on the Connecticut River and on the Delaware River. But on the Connecticut River they got into trouble with the English settlers, who claimed the whole of that country, and presently crowded the Dutch out of it. On the Delaware River the Dutch had trouble with a company of Swedes, who had planted a colony there in 1638. This colony the Swedes called New Sweden, just as the Dutch called theirs New Netherland, and as the English called their northern colonies New England, while the French named their settlements in Canada New France. After a great deal of quarreling between the Swedes and Dutch, the Dutch governor, Peter Stuyvesant, in 1655, mustered a little fleet with six or seven hundred men, and, sailing to the Delaware River, captured New Sweden, and it became a part of New Netherland.

But the English at this time claimed that all the territory between Virginia and New England belonged to England. They said that all that coast had been discovered by Cabot for Henry VII more than a century and a half before. In 1664, in time of peace, four English ships appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam and demanded its surrender. Stout old Peter Stuyvesant, the lame governor who had ruled in the Dutch colonies for many years, resolved to fight. But the city was weak

The English conquer New Netherland.



STREET IN
NEW AMSTERDAM.

and without fortifications, and the people, seeing the uselessness of contending against the ships, persuaded Stuyvesant to surrender. The name New Amsterdam was immediately changed to New York, the whole province having been granted to the Duke of York.

At the time of the surrender New York city had but fifteen hundred people, most of them speaking the Dutch language. To-day there are nearly a thousand

New Amsterdam becomes New York.

times as many people in the city. Many thousands of the inhabitants of New York and many in other States have descended from the first Dutch colonists and bear the old Dutch names. The Dutch settlers were generally industrious, frugal, and religious.



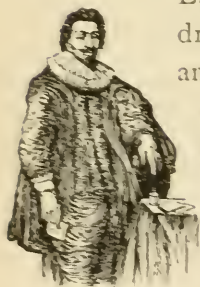
NEW YORK IN THE DUTCH PERIOD.

CHAPTER X.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND AND THE CAROLINAS.

How Virginia
was cut down.

By the second charter given for planting the "First Colony of Virginia," as it was called, its breadth was cut down to four hundred miles along the sea-coast. Virginia had formerly included all that the English claimed in America. Part of the four hundred miles was occupied by the Dutch in New Jersey and Delaware. And the territory of Virginia was, at length, further cut down by the taking of another part of it to form Maryland for Lord Baltimore.



FIRST LORD BALTIMORE.

George Calvert, afterward Lord Baltimore, was a Secretary of State to James I. In 1621 he planted a colony in Newfoundland, which he called Ava-

lon. In 1627 he went to his colony in Newfoundland, but the climate was so cold that in 1629 he went to Virginia. Before going to Virginia he wrote to the king, begging for territory to plant a colony there. Lord Baltimore had become a Roman Catholic at a time when there were severe laws in England against Catholics. Even in the colonies Catholics were not allowed; and the Virginians took advantage of the orders given them from England to insist that Baltimore must take an oath declaring that the king was the head of the Church. As a Catholic he could not do this, and the Virginians bade him leave the colony.



CHARLES I.

Lord Baltimore's first colony fails.

Lord Baltimore returned to England, and got the king, Charles I, to give him a slice of Virginia north of the Potomac. This country King Charles named Maryland, in honor of the queen, his wife. For this Baltimore was to pay to the king two Indian arrows every year in recognition of the king's sovereignty. But, before Lord Baltimore could send out a colony, he died.

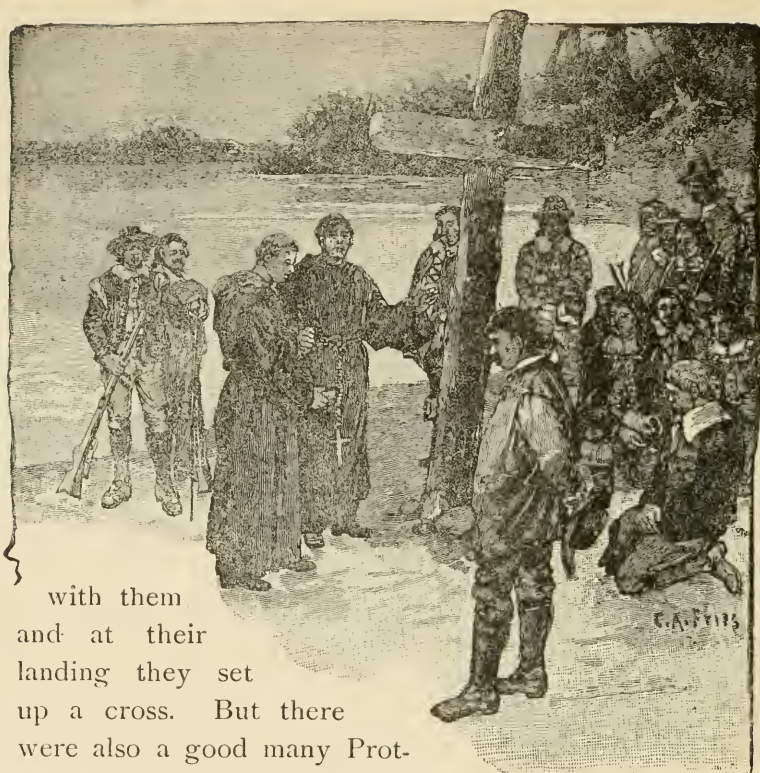
Maryland granted to Lord Baltimore.

The territory was then granted to Lord Baltimore's son, the second Lord Baltimore. He was given all the powers of a monarch. The first settlers were sent out in 1633, and reached Maryland in 1634. This company was composed of twenty gentlemen and three hundred laboring-men, and the first governor was Leonard Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore's brother. Roman Catholic priests were

Maryland planted by the second Lord Baltimore.



SECOND LORD BALTIMORE.



with them
and at their
landing they set
up a cross. But there
were also a good many Prot-
estants in the party, and Balti-
more had resolved from the beginning that there should
be no persecution of any Christians on account of re-
ligion in his new province. In almost every country
in the world at that time the established religion, of
whatever sort it might be, was enforced by law.

Early years of
Maryland.

The colonists came in two ships called the Ark and the Dove; they settled first at a place which they called St. Mary's, on the St. Mary's River, not far from the Potomac. They bought from the Indians living on the place their village and corn-ground, and for the rest of that season they lived in half of the village with the In-

dians. The colony had many troubles and several little civil wars in its early years. These mostly grew out of the religious differences of the people. But after a while Maryland prospered and grew rich by raising tobacco. The money of Maryland as of Virginia was tobacco, and the two colonies were much alike in traits of their business and social life.



After the settlement of New England by Puritans, and Maryland by Catholics, there was a period of about thirty years in which no new colonies were planted. In this period occurred the Great Rebellion in England, in which Charles I was beheaded, and his son Charles II was kept out of England by the Puritans under Oliver Cromwell. But, after Cromwell's death, Charles II was brought back to the throne of England in 1660. This is known as the Restoration.

No new colonies
for thirty years.

After the Restoration there was a new interest in colonies. New York was taken from the Dutch, and new colonies were planned. King Charles II was a very thoughtless, self-indulgent monarch, who freely granted great tracts of land in America to several of his favorites. To some of his courtiers he gave, in 1663, a large territory cut off from Virginia on the south, which had been known before this time as Carolana, but was now called Carolina, from Carolus, the Latin form of King Charles's name. This territory included what we call North and South Carolina. The eight noblemen and gentlemen to whom this territory was granted were called "The Lords Proprietors of Carolina."

Carolina granted
to eight proprie-
tors.



CHARLES II.

Beginning of settlements in North Carolina in 1653.



HUGUENOT MERCHANT.

The Carolina Constitution.



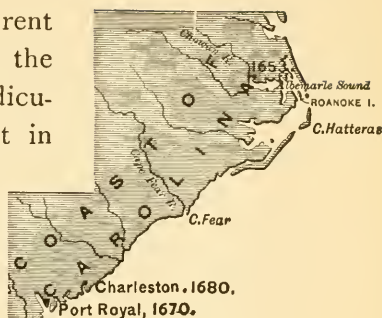
HUGUENOT
MERCHANT'S WIFE.

In the northeastern corner of this territory, on the Chowan River, a settlement had been made by people from Virginia, under the lead of a minister named Roger Green, in 1653. This was ten years before the country was granted to these lords proprietors, and the land belonged to Virginia when they settled there. A settlement was made at Port Royal, in South Carolina, in 1670, but the people afterward moved to where the city of Charleston now stands. The foundation of this city was laid in 1680. A large number of Huguenots, or French Protestants, settled in South Carolina about this time.

As America was a new country, people who had projects of any kind were always for trying them in some American colony. The lords proprietors of Carolina got up what they thought a beautiful system of government. They proposed to have Carolina chiefly ruled by noblemen, who were to be divided into three orders, one above another. These noblemen were to be called palatines, landgraves, and caciques. They attached to this constitution a plan for laying off their territory into large square tracts of several thousand acres each. These were to be the property of their nobility and the proprietors; the people were to be tenants paying rent. The men who adopted this plan had never seen America. They knew nothing of the habits and necessities of settlers in a new country. Constitutions can not be made to order in this fashion; they must grow out of the circumstances and character of the people. The clumsy arrangements of the proprietors all failed when they tried to apply them. Their degrees of nobility and the officers with titles were of no use in the woods of

America ; their people did not care to rent land when so much lay vacant, and the machinery of their constitution was ridiculous when their agents tried to put it in motion.

The Carolina colonies grew slowly at first. The introduction of rice-culture in 1696 proved of great advantage to South Carolina, which immediately became prosperous. The North Carolina people took to raising large herds of cattle which roamed in the woods. This colony was involved in many local dissensions and petty civil wars. The Carolina proprietors, who had the appointment of governors to both colonies, conducted their affairs in a selfish spirit. In 1719 the South Carolina people rose in rebellion, marched into Charleston, and threw off the yoke of the lords proprietors. In 1729 the king bought out the interest of all the proprietors except one, and after that period both North and South Carolina were governed as royal colonies, the governors receiving their appointment from the king, while the laws were made by a General Assembly elected by the people and a Council appointed by the king.



Progress of the Carolinas ; change of government.

CHAPTER XI.

THE COMING OF THE QUAKERS AND OTHERS TO THE
JERSEYS AND PENNSYLVANIA.

SCOTCH WOMAN.

East and West
Jersey.

WE have seen that the Dutch territory of New Netherland extended at first to the Connecticut River on the east and to the Delaware River on the south. This included what we now know as New Jersey, in which numbers of Dutch people had settled before the English took possession of New Netherland in 1664. Charles II, with his accustomed lavishness, gave away New Netherland to his brother the Duke of York before it was conquered. This Duke of York afterward became King of England, as James II. James kept the portion of it that is now called New York, which name it took from his own title. The part now called New Jersey he gave to Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, who after a few years sold their interest to others. In 1674 the proprietors of New Jersey divided it into the colonies of East and West Jersey.



SCOTCHMAN.

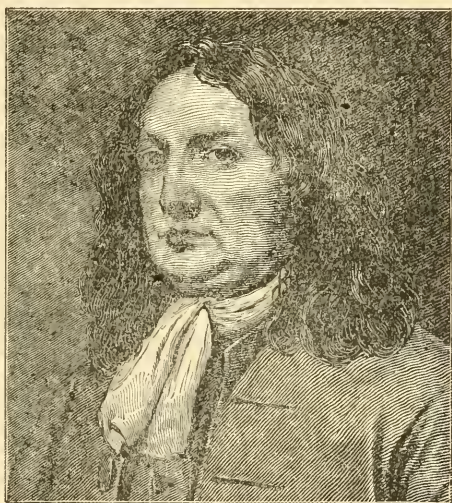
It was a time of religious persecution. Many people emigrated to the colonies in order to get a chance to be religious in their own way, and the proprietors of the New Jersey colonies promised to all who came liberty to worship in the way of their choice. The people of Scotland, who were Presbyterians, suffered horribly from persecutions after the restoration of Charles II, and East Jersey received many Scotch emigrants, driven out of their own country by the cruelty of the gov-

ernment. Some people from New England also moved into East Jersey.

Scotch people
come to New
Jersey.

The religious sect most severely persecuted in England after the restoration of the king was the Society of Friends, whose members are sometimes called Quakers. The conscientious refusal of the Friends to take oaths in courts of law, their unwillingness to serve as soldiers, and their refusal to take off their hats to people in authority, were deemed very serious offenses in that day. They were not only whipped, fined, and imprisoned in England, but also in Virginia, while in Massachusetts they were whipped and banished, and some of them were put to death for returning to the colony after banishment. Some of the people of this persecuted society came to East Jersey, but more to West Jersey, which had been bought by certain leading Friends.

Quakers come to
East and West
Jersey.



WILLIAM PENN.

Among those who had to do with the management of the West Jersey colony was a famous Quaker preacher named William Penn. He was born in London in 1644, and was son to Admiral William Penn, who gained renown for the part he took in the English wars with the Dutch. The younger Penn first came under the in-

fluence of the Friends, or Quakers, while he was a student at Oxford, and he was expelled from the university, with others, for the resistance they made to certain religious ceremonies introduced at that time. His father sent him to Paris, and he became an accomplished man of the world. But he afterward became a Friend, which so enraged the old admiral that he turned his son out of the house. It is pleasant to know, however, that in later years the father and son became reconciled. William Penn was repeatedly imprisoned for his religious views, but he boldly asserted in the English courts the great principle of religious liberty. He traveled into Wales, Ireland, Holland, and Germany, in his preaching journeys, and many of his acquaintances in those countries afterward came to Pennsylvania. Though Penn would never take off his hat in the presence of the king, he had considerable influence at court, which he used to lessen the sufferings of the Quakers and others.

Pennsylvania
granted to
William Penn.

It was probably while Penn was engaged in the affairs of West Jersey that he observed that the territory on the other side of the Delaware was not occupied except by a few Swedes, who had come over to the old colony of New Sweden before Peter Stuyvesant conquered it for the Dutch. William Penn had a claim against the King of England for a considerable sum of money due to his father. The king was in debt, and found it hard to pay what he owed. Penn, therefore, persuaded Charles II to settle the debt by granting him a territory on the west side of the river Delaware. This new territory the king called Pennsylvania, which means something like Penn's For-

est. The name was given in honor of Penn's father, the admiral.

What is now the State of Delaware was also put under Penn's government by the Duke of York. Everything was done with ceremony in those days. When

Delaware delivered to Penn.

Penn got to New Castle, in Delaware, its government was transferred to him in the following way: The key to the fort at New Castle was delivered to him. With this he



PENN'S HOUSE, IN PHILADELPHIA.

locked himself into the fort and then let himself out, in sign that the government was his. To show that the land with the trees on it belonged to him, a piece of sod with a twig in it was given to him. Then a porringer filled with water from the river was put into his hands, that he might be lord of the rivers as well as of the land.

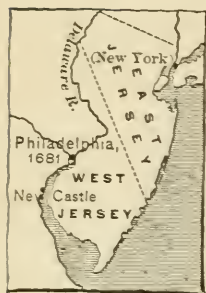
Penn sent his first emigrants to Pennsylvania in 1681. Philadelphia, where they landed, was yet a woods, and the people had to dig holes in the riverbanks to live in through the winter. Nearly thirty vessels came to the new colony during the first year.

Penn settles Pennsylvania.

Although Pennsylvania was the last colony settled except Georgia, it soon became one of the most populous and one of the richest. Before the Revolution, Philadelphia had become the largest town in the thir-

Rapid growth of Pennsylvania.

teen colonies. This was chiefly owing to the very free government that William Penn founded in his colony. Not only English, but Welsh and Irish people, and many thousands of industrious Germans, came to Pennsylvania. People were also attracted by the care that Penn took to maintain friendly relations with the Indians, and to satisfy them for their lands. Another thing which drew people both to Pennsylvania and



New Jersey was the fact that the land was not taken up in large bodies, as it was in New York and Virginia, for instance. In Pennsylvania and New Jersey the poor man could get a farm of his own.

By the sale and division of shares, the proprietaries of both East and West Jersey became too numerous to manage their governments well, and at length disorders arose which

they were not able to suppress. In 1702 the government of both provinces was transferred to Queen Anne, and East and West Jersey were again united into the one province of New Jersey. But even to this day, in common speech, one sometimes hears the State of New Jersey spoken of as "The Jerseys" by people who do not know that two hundred years ago there were two colonies of that name. Pennsylvania remained in the hands of the Penn family, who appointed its governors, till the American Revolution.

The two Jerseys
united.



TREATY-BELT GIVEN BY THE INDIANS TO PENN.

CHAPTER XII.

THE SETTLEMENT OF GEORGIA, AND THE COMING OF
THE GERMANS, IRISH, AND FRENCH.

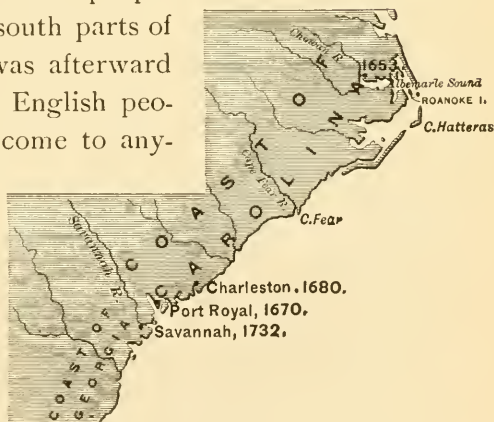
PENN'S settlement at Philadelphia was made, as we have seen, in 1681. This was seventy-four years after the settlement of Jamestown. In seventy-four years, which is not a very long lifetime, all the colonies were begun except one. But after the settlement of Pennsylvania there passed fifty-one years more before another colony was begun. As the borders of Carolina were supposed to reach to the Spanish territory in Florida, and as New England touched the French territory in Canada, there appeared to be no room for any more colonies, until it was suggested that a slice might be taken off the south side of South Carolina, and a new colony be wedged in between Carolina and the Spanish colony in Florida. Indeed, long before Georgia as a separate colony was thought of, some benevolent people had the notion of settling "the south parts of Carolina," as they called what was afterward named Georgia, with distressed English people. But the project did not come to anything until it was taken up by General Oglethorpe, a most energetic and benevolent man.

James Edward Oglethorpe was born in London in 1688. He was in the war of the Austrians against the Turks



GENERAL OGLETHORPE.

Georgia projected.



in 1716, and held a command under Prince Eugene in the brilliant and desperate campaign of 1717, which ended in the surrender of Belgrade. He returned to England in 1722, and served in Parliament for thirty-two years afterward. He was opposed to the cruel system of imprisoning poor debtors which then prevailed, and he did much to improve the condition of this unhappy class. He was also interested in the efforts then made to convert the black slaves in the colonies to Christianity.

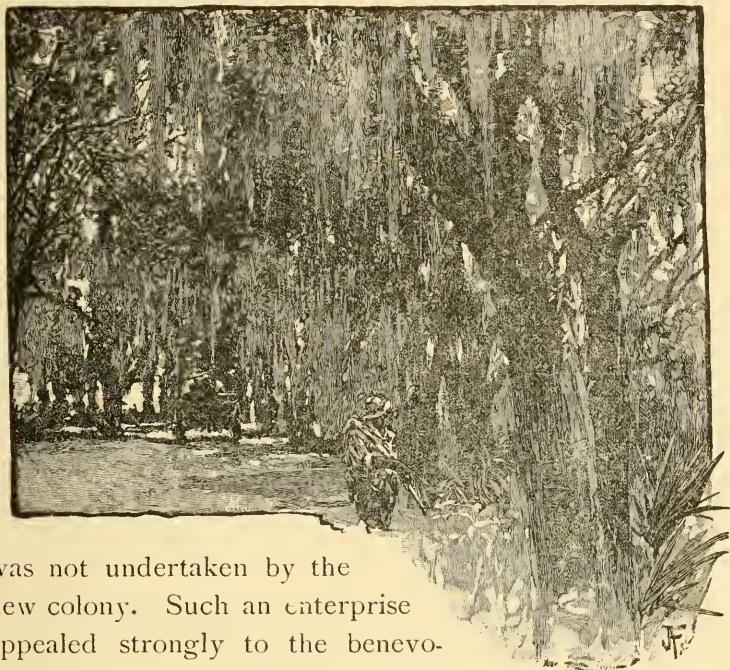
Oglethorpe's
plans.

In settling Georgia, the views of Oglethorpe and his associates were most benevolent. There had been much wild speculation in England, by which multitudes of people were ruined. Oglethorpe wished to provide a home for these, where they might in a new country hope to secure a competency. There was at this time much sympathy in England for the Protestants, who were suffering persecution in several of the countries on the continent of Europe, and Oglethorpe hoped to make the new colony a refuge for these. He also proposed to make his colony a military barrier against the encroachments of the Spaniards in Florida, who laid claim to all of South Carolina. In order that his people might not live in idleness, he did not permit any slaves to be bought; to make them temperate, he forbade the importation of rum. Georgia was thus for a while the only non-slaveholding colony, and the only place in Europe or America in which the sale of liquors was prohibited.

Visionary ex-
periments

Like many other philanthropists, Oglethorpe tried to do more than was possible. He thought that, by raising silk-worms in Georgia, he might save to the Eng-

lish the money they paid to the Italians for silk. He also tried to raise many valuable tropical plants. There was hardly any good thing which needed doing that



A GEORGIA ROAD.

was not undertaken by the new colony. Such an enterprise appealed strongly to the benevolent, and many thousands of pounds were given to help on this good work. Parliament also voted a donation to Georgia. No one was allowed to make any profit out of the new colony, on the seal of which was a device of silk-worms spinning, with a motto in Latin which meant, "Not for themselves, but for others" (*Non sibi sed aliis*).

In 1732 Oglethorpe took out his first company of a hundred and sixteen people, with whom he began the town of Savannah. Many others were added, among whom were a regiment of Scotch Highlanders,

PIPER TO A
HIGHLAND REGIMENT.

First settlement
of Georgia at Sa-
vannah.

some Hebrews, and some persecuted Germans. The general bore hardship with the rest, and by brilliant management defeated the Spaniards when they attacked his colony.

Oglethorpe's
plans cause dis-
satisfaction.



GERMAN
COUNTRY MAN
OF THAT TIME.

But the people after a while became dissatisfied. They were not allowed any hand in making their own laws. No man, unless he brought white servants, was permitted to own more than fifty acres of land, and this land he could not sell or rent or divide among his children. His oldest son took it at his death; if he had no son, it went back to the trustees of the colony. It was thought that by this means the evils of wealth and poverty would be prevented. But, like all such attempts, this proved a failure, because the people felt that such laws interfered with their just liberties, and took away all inducements to the improvement of their property.

The government
transferred to
the king.

The complaints of the settlers became very bitter, and many of them left the colony. In 1752, twenty years after the beginning of the settlement, the trustees surrendered the government to the king. After that, Georgia was not different from the other colonies. One might own as much land as one could get, and sell or lease it at one's pleasure. Rum also came in, which certainly was no advantage. Slaves were bought, and rice and indigo plantations, like those of South Carolina, were established. Silk-raising prospered so long as the British government paid bounties on all that was produced. When these were withdrawn, it was no longer profitable.



GERMAN
COUNTRY WOMAN
OF THAT TIME.

The coming of
the Germans.

The Germans that came to Georgia were not by any means the first of these industrious people in the English

colonies in America. There were many little sects in Germany at that time, and these suffered much persecution, from which they were glad to flee. The laws of Pennsylvania promised them freedom. Some of these sects were opposed to war, and their members emigrated to Penn's colony, where military service was not required, because the Society of Friends was also opposed to war. The tide of German emigration became greater and greater after this; thousands of Germans coming to Pennsylvania to escape the miseries brought on them by persecution and the wars which desolated their country.

In three years, during the reign of Queen Anne, there came to England thirteen thousand poor people from that part of Germany called the Palatinate. These people were called Palatines, and they were seeking to be sent to America, their country having been ruined by the European wars. Some of these were dispatched to Virginia, some to the Carolinas, and some to Maryland. About four thousand were sent to New York to make tar and pitch. So wretchedly were these cared for that seventeen hundred of the four thousand died at sea or soon after landing. The rest were settled on the Hudson River, where the descendants of some of them are to-day. Some went to the wilderness farther west. They were badly treated in New York, and only allowed ten acres of land apiece. Three hundred of them, hearing that Germans were well received in Pennsylvania, made a bold push through the backwoods of New York, down the rivers that flowed into Pennsylvania. From that time Germans avoided New York, and thronged more than ever into Pennsylvania.



IRISH MAN
OF THAT TIME.

The arrival of
the Palatine Ger-
mans.



IRISH WOMAN
OF THAT TIME.

Irish immigrants
to the colonies.



FRENCH COUNTRY MAN
OF THAT DAY.

The migration to
the southward.



Æ
FRENCH
COUNTRY WOMAN
OF THAT DAY.

The Irish that came before the Revolution were mostly Presbyterians in belief. They had been persecuted in order to force them into the Church of England. Some of them came to New England about 1718, introducing there the spinning of flax and the planting of potatoes. There was not a colony to which they did not go; but the greatest tide of Irish immigration poured into Pennsylvania. Five thousand Irish immigrants arrived in the city of Philadelphia in the year 1729. Many of the Irish were bold and enterprising pioneers, opening the way into unknown regions, and showing great courage in fighting with the Indians.

Pennsylvania filled up with great rapidity, and, when the later Indian wars laid waste its frontiers, many of the German and Irish settlers moved southward into the beautiful and fertile mountain-valleys of Virginia. Then, following the lines of open prairies and Indian trails east of the mountains, this stream of people went onward into the Carolinas. The Irish, indeed, and their children born in America, pushed southward until they had filled whole counties in North and South Carolina. They were also among the first to move westward into the Alleghanies, and at length they pushed over into the Western country.

The Huguenots, or French Protestants, rendered unhappy by the civil wars and persecutions of the time, came to the colonies in large numbers. They settled in almost every colony, but more largely in South Carolina than elsewhere.

Notwithstanding the multitudes of Germans, Irish, French, and Scotch that came to the colonies, those who

came from England formed much the largest part of every colony. The English language prevailed over every other. But, until after the Revolution, some descendants of the Dutch in New York still spoke the language of their ancestors, and a few old people yet use it. In Pennsylvania, where the Germans filled wide regions of country, their speech was preserved through the whole colonial period. Bibles and other books were printed in German in Pennsylvania, and the language is still used in many parts of that State.

The English the most numerous.

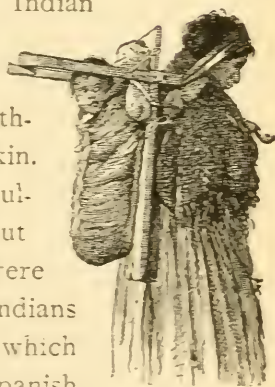
CHAPTER XIII.

HOW THE INDIANS LIVED.

BEFORE the white people settled America it was inhabited by many tribes of the people we call Indians. They were called Indians because the first discoverers believed America to be a part of India. The Indian is of a brown or copper color, with black eyes and straight hair.

The Indians.

In what is now the United States the clothing of the Indians was mostly made of deer-skin. A whole deer-skin was thrown about the shoulders, a strip of the same material was hung about the loins, and the leggins worn in winter were also of deer-skin. Some of the Southern Indians wore mantles woven from the fiber of a plant which now grows in gardens under the name of "Spanish bayonet," but which in that day was called "silk."



The dress of the
Indians.

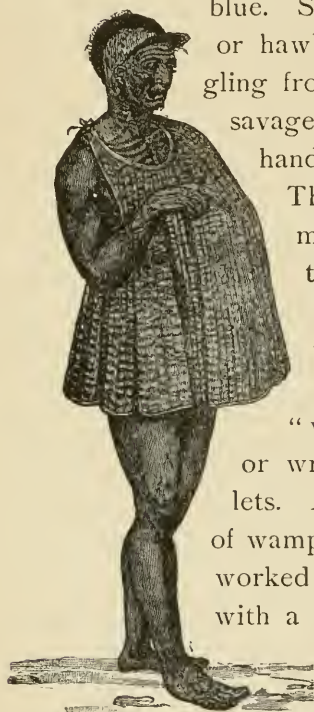
grass." The women wore deer-skin aprons. Women of the Northern tribes wore mantles of beaver-skins. Shoes, or moccasins, were of deer-skin, sometimes embroidered with porcupine-quills or shell beads.

Indian adorn-
ments.

The Indian warriors were fond of staining their faces in stripes, spots, and splashes of red, yellow, and blue. Some of the Virginia Indians wore bears' or hawks' claws, and even living snakes, dangling from their ears; and sometimes, also, the savage Indian warrior would wear the dried hand of his dead enemy in the same way. The use of such ugly adornment was to make the savages seem as fierce and terrible as possible.

Both men and women decorated themselves with beads, which they made from sea-shells. These were called "wampum," and were worn in strings, or wrought into belts, necklaces, and bracelets. As the Indians had no iron, the making of wampum was very laborious. A bit of stone worked down to the size of a sixpenny nail, with a large head, was made fast to a reed or cane. Then the Indian workman, having chipped off a piece of the shell of the hard clam, or a piece of the inside of a conch-shell, and worked it down

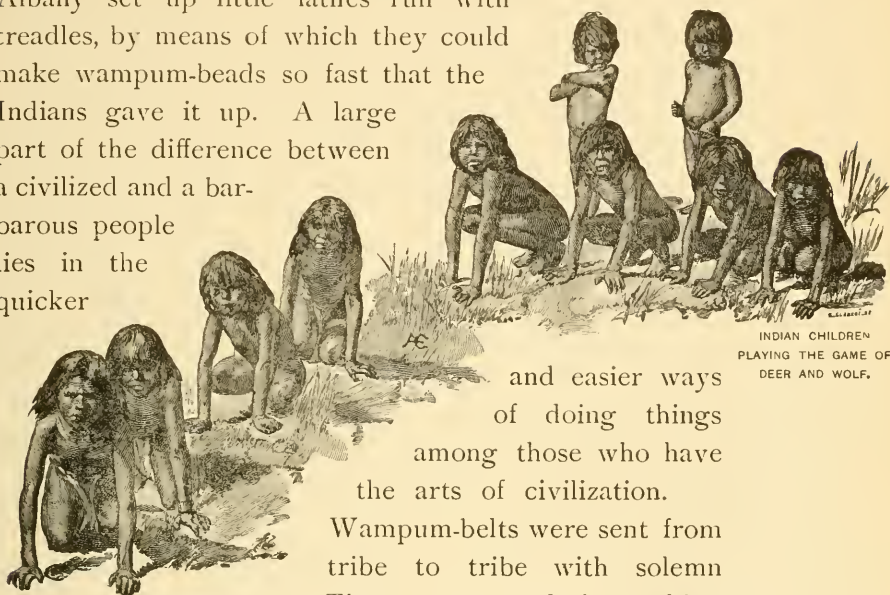
to the right size, bored a hole in it by resting the point of the drill against the bit of shell held in his hand, rolling over and over the other end of the reed against his thigh. This slow work being necessary to make it, wampum was highly valued. As soon as the white men



MEDICINE-MAN, WITH A MANTLE OF
SILK-GRASS. DRAWN IN 1585.

Wampum.

came, the Indians used iron nails instead of stone drills. After a while the Dutch settlers in New Jersey and at Albany set up little lathes run with treadles, by means of which they could make wampum-beads so fast that the Indians gave it up. A large part of the difference between a civilized and a barbarous people lies in the quicker

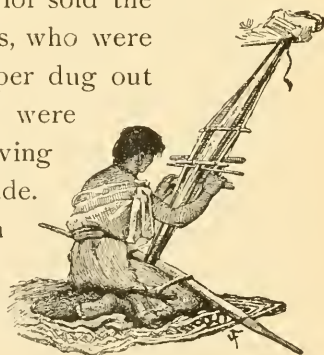


INDIAN CHILDREN
PLAYING THE GAME OF
DEER AND WOLF.

and easier ways of doing things among those who have the arts of civilization.

Wampum-belts were sent from tribe to tribe with solemn messages. They were used in making peace and in appealing to allied nations to join in a war. Before the white men came, wampum, being very costly in human labor, served the purpose of money among the savages. With wampum they carried on a trade from tribe to tribe. The Indians of the interior sold the products of their country to the coast tribes, who were wampum-makers. Ornaments made of copper dug out of the ground in the Lake Superior region were found in North Carolina and Virginia, having passed from tribe to tribe in the way of trade.

When white people opened a trade with the Indians, wampum was used for small change and beaver-skins for large money.

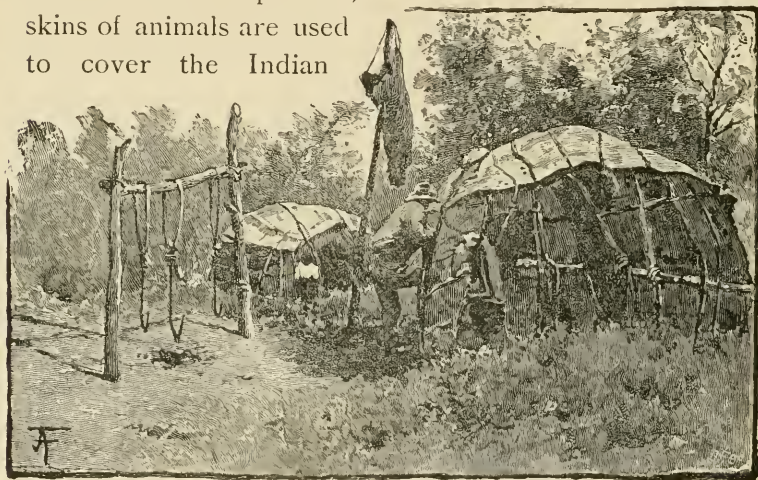


NAVAJO INDIAN WOMAN WEAVING A BELT.

STRINGS OF
WAMPUM.

The purple wampum was more valuable than the white. As there were few small coins in this country, wampum passed for money among the white people, and was for a long time almost the only small change in New York and elsewhere. It seems curious to think that, when the plate was passed in church, nothing was put upon it but shell beads.

Indian houses, or wigwams, were mere tents of bark or of mats, supported by poles. Among the Indians of the Western prairies, skins of animals are used to cover the Indian

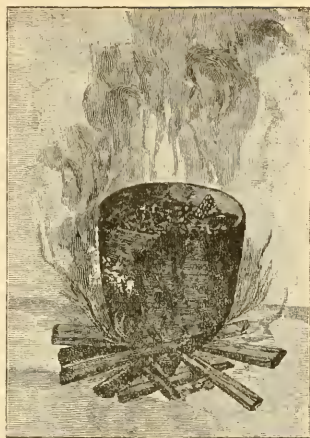


INDIAN WIGWAMS OF BARK.

Indian houses. The wigwams were not divided into rooms. The inmates slept on the ground, or sometimes on raised platforms. The fire was built in the middle of the wigwam, and the smoke found its way out through an opening at the top. In some tribes long arbor-like houses were built of bark. In these there were fires at regular intervals. Two families lived by each fire. A picture of one of these long houses, as built by the

Iroquois Indians, will be found in Chapter XX. In New Mexico there are Indians who live in large houses of stone or sun-dried brick. Many families, sometimes all the people of a village, inhabit a single house.

The Indian houses had very little furniture. There were a few mats and skins for bedding. Some tribes had for household use only wooden vessels, which they made by burning and scraping out blocks of wood, little by little, with no other tools than shells or sharp stones. These Indians cooked their food by putting water into their wooden bowls and then throwing in heated stones. When the stones had made the water hot, they put in it what-



MANNER OF BOILING IN AN EARTHEN POT.

Furniture of wigwams, and modes of cookery.



ZUNI INDIAN WOMAN MAKING POTTERY.



INDIAN BOTTLE
OF POTTERY FROM
ARKANSAS.

ever they wished to cook. Other tribes knew how to make pots of earthenware; and yet others cut them out of soap-stone. Vessels of pottery and soap-stone could be set over the fire. Often fish and meat were broiled on sticks laid across above the fire; green corn with the husks on it was roasted under the ashes, as were also squashes and various roots. Indian corn, put into a mortar and pounded into meal, was mixed with water and baked in the ashes, or boiled in a pot. Sometimes the meal was parched and carried in a little bag, to be eaten on a journey. A few tribes near to salt springs had salt, the rest used leaves of several sorts for seasoning.

Indian agricult-
ure.



STONE AXE.

For tilling the ground the Indians had rude tools; their hoe was made by attaching to a stick a piece of deer's horn, or the shoulder-blade of an animal, or the shell of a turtle, a bit of wood, or a flat stone. They raised Indian corn, beans, squashes, and tobacco. They prepared the ground by girdling the trees so as to kill them; sometimes they burned the trees down. Some tribes had rude axes for cutting small trees; these were made of stone. The handle of the stone axe was formed by tying a stick to it, or by twisting a green withe about it. Sometimes an Indian would split open a growing young tree and put the axe into the cleft; when the tree had grown fast around the



INDIAN MANNER OF BROILING IN 1585.



INDIAN KINDLING FIRE.

axe he would cut it down and shorten it to the proper length for a handle. The Indians had no iron. For knives they had pieces of bone, sharp stones, and shells.

The Indian procured fire by twirling the end of a stick against another piece of wood. To give this twirling stick a quick motion, he wrapped a bow string about it, and then drew the bow swiftly to and fro.

The most remarkable product of Indian skill was the canoe; this was made in some tribes by burning out a log, little by little, and scraping the charred parts with shells, until the "dug-out" canoe was sufficiently deep and rightly shaped. Many canoes made in this way, without any other tools than shells

Canoe.



MAKING A CANOE.

One Indian is seen scraping out the charred wood, another is fanning the fire, while a third is burning down a tree to begin a new canoe.

and sharp stones, would carry from twenty to forty men. The Northern tribes constructed a more beautiful



INDIAN VASE.

canoe, of white-birch bark, stretched on slender wooden ribs, and sewed together with roots and fibers. Such canoes were made water-tight by the use of gums. In Chapter XVI will be seen a picture of birch-bark canoes.

Division of labor.

Among the Indians, the hardest work fell to the women. Hunting, gambling, and making war, were the occupations of the men. The male Indian was from childhood trained to war and the chase. Game and fish, with such fruits, nuts, and roots as grew wild in the woods and swamps, were the principal dependence of the Indians for food. As they suffered much from hunger and misery, the population of the country was always thin.

Wars between the tribes.

Moreover, the continual wars waged between the various tribes, in which women and children as well as men were slain, kept the red-men from increasing in numbers. Large tracts of country were left uninhabited, because tribes at war dared not live near to one another, for fear of surprise. In all the country east of the Mississippi River there were but a few hundred thousand people; hardly more than there are in one of our smallest States, and not enough, if they had all been brought together, to make a large city.

The coming of the white people made great changes in the Indian life. The furs and skins, which the Indians did not value, except for necessary clothing, were articles of luxury and ornament of great value in Europe. Many a half-starved Indian was clothed in furs that a European prince would have prized. The



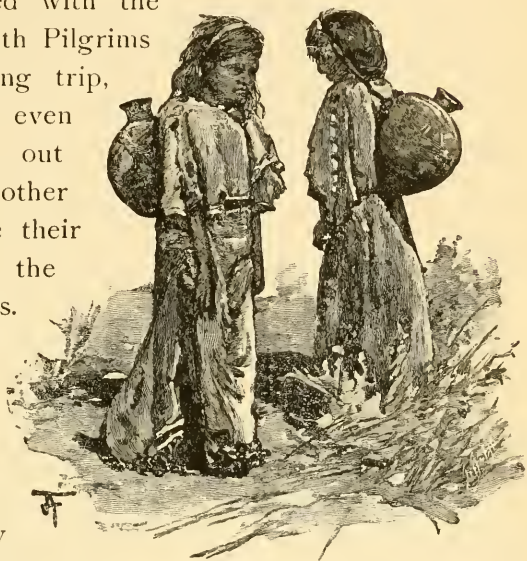
INDIAN GIRL WITH BASKETS.

savage readily exchanged his beautiful beaver coat for a bright-colored blanket and thought he had made a good bargain, though his furs were worth to the white man the price of many blankets. The Indians of the region about Boston were pleased with the trinkets which the Plymouth Pilgrims brought them on a trading trip, and the Indian women even made themselves garments out of boughs and leaves like Mother Eve, that they might trade their jackets of beaver-skin to the white people for knickknacks.

The cheap glass beads and tiny bells, such as the people of old time hung about the necks of the hawks with which they hunted birds, were greatly prized by savages. Jew's-harps were also much liked by them, and were

sometimes used in paying them for land. The Indian who could possess himself of a copper kettle was a rich man in his tribe. It was the irresistible temptation of a copper kettle that persuaded Japazaws to betray Pocahontas to the Virginia colonists. The cheap iron hatchets of the trader drove out the stone axes, and knives were eagerly bought, but guns were more sought after than anything else; and, though there were many laws against selling fire-arms to the Indians, there were always men who were glad to enrich themselves by this unlawful trade. The passion of the savage for intoxicating

Beginning of
trade with the
Indians.



PIUTE INDIAN GIRLS WITH WATER-JARS.

Articles sold to
the Indians.



POTTERY
FROM MISSOURI.

drinks was so great that evil men among the traders were often able to strip them of all their goods by selling them strong liquors.

Purchase of land.

The white settlers generally bought the land they occupied from the Indians. As land was not worth much, the price paid was trifling. Manhattan Island, on which New York now stands, was sold to the Dutch, by the Indians, for about twenty-four dollars in trading wares. The land-sales made trouble, for the lines were not well defined, and were often matters of dispute. The Indians did not understand business, and they sometimes had to be paid over and over again for a tract of land.

CHAPTER XIV.

EARLY INDIAN WARS.

**Dishonest traders
and the Indians.**



SHELL AXE.

THERE were, between the two races, occasions enough for quarreling. Dishonest white men were sure to cheat the ignorant Indians, and the violent among the Indians were as sure to revenge themselves. If an Indian suffered wrong from one white man, he thought he had a right to take vengeance on any man, woman, or child of the white race when he found opportunity. It was an Indian saying that "one pays for another." When evil-disposed white men killed and robbed an Indian on the island where New York now stands, the nephew of the slain Indian, though but a little boy, laid it up in his mind to kill some white man in revenge, and when he had grown to manhood, he entered the shop of

an inoffensive mechanic in a lonesome place, killed the poor fellow, and felt sure that he had at last done justice to his uncle by slaying somebody who had never done anybody any harm.

Then, too, Indians were trained to think that war was the only worthy occupation of a great man. If an Indian had never killed an enemy, he was nobody; even the young girls scouted him. The young men in a tribe were therefore always in favor of war.

Many of the white people sincerely desired to do the Indians good. Schools for the education of Indian children were set up in Virginia and in New England. Catholic missionaries labored among the Indians of Maryland. John Eliot, of Massachusetts, preached to thousands of Indians, and translated the whole Bible into their language. He is called the "Apostle to the Indians." But, even in trying to do the Indians good, the white men offended them. The chiefs and "medicine-men" of the Indians did not like to see their ancient customs treated with contempt, and their own influence destroyed by the new religion.



FLORIDA WARRIOR, 1565.

Indian love of war.

Attempts to educate the Indians.

Early Indian massacres in Virginia.



♣
CALUMET, OR
PEACE-PIPE.

The second massacre.



♣
INDIAN MASK.

The Pequot war
in 1637.

We have seen how suddenly the Indians massacred the Virginians in 1622. This led to a long war, with many treacheries and cruel surprises on both sides. As the Virginians found that the Indians did not keep faith with them, but used the cloak of peace to get the advantage of a sudden surprise, they, on their part, thought it allowable to act in bad faith, the more that they could never come at the Indians, who would take their own time to strike and flee. Pretending to make peace, the colonists sent out, simultaneously, parties to fall on every Indian village within their reach. It is said they even went so far as to treacherously use poison at a treaty-meeting in order to kill certain chiefs. After some years the neighboring Indians were subdued or driven off.

But in 1644 the old chief Opechankano, who had led in the first massacre, planned a second. He was so old that he could not walk without assistance, and could not see, except when his eyelids were held open. He was carried to the scene of bloodshed. The Indians had by this time secured guns. By a sudden surprise they killed about five hundred white people in a single day. But they paid dearly for their victory, for the colony had grown strong enough to defeat and punish them. They were driven away from their villages. Opechankano was taken prisoner, and, while a captive, was suddenly killed by an infuriated soldier.

The Pequot war in Connecticut grew out of the differences between the Dutch and the English settlers. The English brought back the Indians whom the Pequot tribe had just driven away. The Pequots began the war by killing some English traders. The attempts of the English colonists to conquer this tribe were at first of

no avail. The Indians were light of foot, and got away from men clad in heavy armor. They continued to seize and torture to death such English as they could catch. In 1637, John Mason, a trained soldier, at the head of a company of Connecticut men, with some from Massachusetts, marched into the Pequot country. At Mystic, Connecticut, just before daybreak, the Connecticut men surrounded the palisaded village of Sassacus, the dreaded Pequot chief. In the first onset Mason set the village on fire. A horrible slaughter followed. Indian men, women, and children, to the number of five or six hundred, were shot down or burned in the village, or killed in trying to escape. In the war which followed this attack, the whole Pequot tribe was broken up, and the other Indians were so terrified that New England had peace for many years after.

About the same time cruel Indian wars raged between the Dutch of New Netherland (now New York) and the Indians in their neighborhood. At one time the Dutch colony was almost overthrown. There was also a war between the Marylanders and the Susquehannah tribe. In 1656 the Virginians suffered a bitter defeat in a battle with the Indians at the place where Richmond now stands. The brook at this place got the name of Bloody Run.

In 1675 there broke out in New England the terrible Indian war known ever since as King Philip's War. Philip was the son of Massasoit, the Indian chief who had been long a friend to the Plymouth settlers. Philip was a proud man, and thought that he was not treated with enough respect by the rulers of Plymouth Colony, who acted with imprudent boldness in their dealings



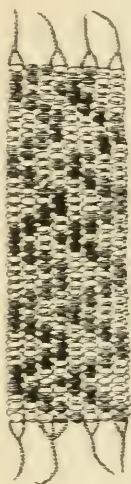
MASK MADE BY
IROQUOIS INDIANS.

Indian wars in
New York, Mary-
land, and Vir-
ginia.

King Philip's
War, 1675.

with him. He was also irritated because large numbers of his people were converted to the Christian religion, through the labors of John Eliot. These converted people, or "praying Indians," formed themselves into villages, and lived under the government of the Massachusetts colony, by which means Philip's power and importance were reduced.

The "Swamp Fight" at the Narragansett fort.



BELT OF WAMPUM.

Captain Church.

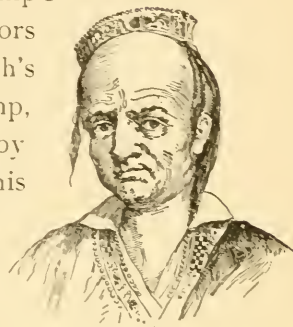
Philip won some successes at first, and Indians of other tribes came to his assistance. Many New England towns were laid in ashes, and hundreds of people were killed or carried away into captivity. The powerful tribe of Narragansetts gave Philip secret aid, and in the winter the white men boldly attacked their stronghold. This was always known as the "Swamp Fight." Hundreds of Indians were slain, and their village burned. The colonists also lost two hundred men in this battle, and the Narragansetts took a terrible revenge by burning houses and killing people in every direction.

But after a while the white men learned how to fight the Indians. Captain Benjamin Church was the most famous fighter against the Indians in this war. He was tireless, fearless, and full of expedients. He first taught the Englishmen to practice the arts of the Indian in war. He knew how to manage men, and had great influence over them. He would even persuade captive Indians to join his band and lead him to the haunts of their friends. On approaching a party of concealed Indians, one of the Indians who followed Church would hoot like an owl or bark like a wolf, or imitate some other cry of the forest. These were the pass-words of the woods, and, when heard by another Indian, a similar cry

would be returned. Church would thus entrap the Indians by the treachery of their own friends.

After a bitter war, in which the white settlements suffered so severely that timid people thought the colony of Massachusetts might be destroyed, Philip's power was gradually broken, as his warriors were most of them killed or captured. Church's men at length surrounded Philip in a swamp, and, in trying to escape, the chief was killed by a deserter from his own tribe. Church let this Indian take Philip's scarred hand for a trophy. This he carried about the country, making money by showing it.

Death of Philip



KING PHILIP.

When Philip was dead, only old Annawon, Philip's head-man, remained in the field with a party. When Church at last found him, he was sheltered under some cliffs. Church had but half a dozen men with him; Annawon ten times that number of resolute braves. But, creeping down the cliffs, while an Indian woman was making a noise by pounding corn in a mortar, Church succeeded in capturing the guns of the Indians, which were stacked at Annawon's feet. Seeing his boldness, the Indians thought that Church had surrounded them with a great many men, and they therefore surrendered. Most of the Indians taken in this war were cruelly sold into slavery in Barbadoes.

Defeat of Annawon.

Though Philip's war was ended when his tribe had been almost extirpated, the New England people did not have peace. The Indians of Maine kept up a war on the Eastern settlements. In this war Church was still the right hand of the colonies. He introduced the use of the light whale-boat, which afterward did admirable service

Use of whale-boat in fighting Indians.

on Lake George and Lake Champlain in the wars with the French in Canada, and which was used in Long Island Sound for some daring expeditions during the Revolution. Church put leathern loops on the sides of his boats, so that, when necessary, his men could thrust bars through the loops and carry the boats where they pleased. He moved as stealthily as the Indians, and, to avoid an alarm, never allowed an Indian to be shot who could be reached with the hatchet. Though engaged in so fierce a business as savage warfare, Church had a good deal of forbearance and kindliness.

Bacon's war with the Virginia Indians, 1676.



NORTH CAROLINA WARRIOR IN 1585.

About the time of Philip's war the Doegs and Susquehannahs were ravaging the Virginia frontier, while the governor of that colony refused to allow any one to march against them. But Nathaniel Bacon, a young man of great spirit, was chosen by the people to lead them, which he did in opposition to the governor's orders. This disobedience led to "Bacon's Rebellion," as it is called, the story of which is told in Chapter XXVI.

The Westoes and Tuscaroras defeated.

from Indian wars. The infant settlement in South Carolina was almost ruined by a war with the Indians called Westoes, ten years after the arrival of the first white

men, and in the very year that Charleston was settled: that is, in 1680. In 1711 the warlike Tuscaroras ravaged the scattered settlements of North Carolina, putting people to death by horrible tortures. It was only by the help of the Virginians and South Carolinians, and the Yamassee Indians, that the settlers, after two years, finally defeated the Tuscaroras, capturing and sending many hundreds of them to be sold as slaves in the West India Islands; a mode of disposing of Indian prisoners very common at that time. The sale of the Indians got them out of the country, and paid a part of the cost of the war. But West Indian slavery in that day was particularly severe on the Indians, who could not bear hard labor, a change of climate, or the loss of their liberty.

In 1715 the Yamassees, who two years before had helped the white people to put down the Tuscaroras, joined with the Spaniards in Florida, and with all the other Indians from Florida to Cape Fear, in an attempt to destroy the colony of South Carolina. There were six or seven thousand Indian warriors in this league, while South Carolina could only muster fifteen hundred white men and two hundred trusty negroes. Governor Craven knew that a single defeat would ruin the colony, so he marched with the utmost caution until he brought on a great battle, and overthrew the Indians. This war lasted about three years, and resulted in the ruin of the Yamassees

The Yamassee
war in South
Carolina, 1715.

CHAPTER XV.

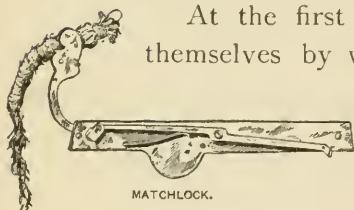
TRAITS OF WAR WITH THE INDIANS.



WAR-CLUB.

Indian weapons.

THE most important weapon of the Indian, when the white men came, was the bow and arrow. The arrow was headed with a sharpened flint or a bit of horn. Sometimes the spur of a wild-turkey or the claw of an eagle was used to point the arrow. Next to the bow and arrow the Indian warrior depended on a war-club, which had a handle at one end and a heavy knob at the other, or upon a tomahawk, made by fastening a wooden handle to a round stone, or a stone axe. But all their rude weapons were given up as soon as the Indians could get knives, hatchets, and guns from the white men. In some cases, it is said, they were so eager for gunpowder that they sowed what they got at first, supposing it to be the seed of a plant. The Pequots commanded two white girls, whom they had captured, to make some gunpowder, supposing that all white people knew how to make it.



MATCHLOCK.

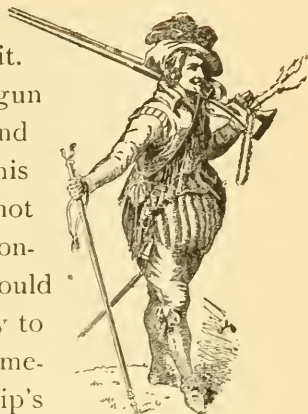
Armor and arms
of the white men

At the first arrival of white men, they protected themselves by wearing armor, and the Indian arrows could not do them much hurt. But, as soldiers could not get about very fast in heavy armor and with clumsy guns, they could not do much harm to the Indians. Some of the guns used were matchlocks. In order to shoot, the soldier had to place in



MATCHLOCK-GUN.

front of him a "rest"—a kind of forked stick or staff—and lay his heavy gun across it. In firing, the powder on the lock of his gun was set off with a lighted fuse or match; and the soldier had to carry a burning fuse in his hand. If he let his fuse go out, he could not use his gun until he got fire again, for friction-matches were unknown. But the Indians would not stand still while the white men got ready to shoot. This awkward matchlock-gun was sometimes used as late as 1675, the time of Philip's war. The snaphance, or flint-lock, was already coming into use when the colonies were settled. The flint-lock was set off by the striking of the flint against a



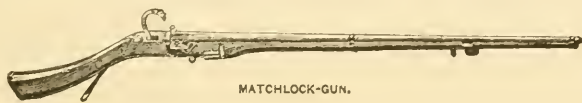
PIKEMAN OF THAT TIME.

piece of steel, when the trigger was pulled. (Guns with percussion-caps are a much later invention.) Some of the white men at first were armed with pikes or spears; but it was found to be a very dangerous business to poke an Indian out of the brush with a pike. During Philip's war the pike began to go out of use in America.

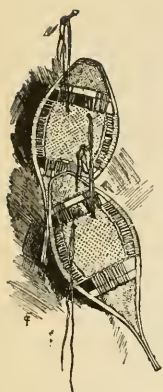
When the Indians had procured fire-arms, the armor which the soldiers wore, being of little use against bullets, was rather a burden than an advantage.

Long after the first settlements were made, white men ceased by degrees to wear the head, and breast, and back pieces of metal, and they laid aside also the heavy

The Indians get fire-arms. White men change their mode of fighting.



MATCHLOCK-GUN.



SNOW-SHOES.

Indian stratagems.

Treatment of prisoners by the Indians.

buff-coats, which were made of leather and stuffed, to resist bullets. The colonists also learned to march in scattering parties, as the Indians did, in order to avoid surprise, and to lie in ambush, and to load their guns while lying down. For a long time the savages made attacks on the Northern settlements in the winter, when the snow was so deep that the soldiers could not move about; but, after stupidly suffering this for many years, the Northern colonies at length put their soldiers on snow-shoes, too, and then all was changed.

The Indian did not hesitate to resort to treachery to entrap his foes. He would profess friendship in order to disarm an enemy. He gloried in ingenious tricks, such as the wearing of snow-shoes with the hind part before, so as to make an enemy believe that he had gone in an opposite direction. He would sometimes imitate the cry of the wild-turkey, and so tempt a white hunter into the woods, that he might destroy him. An Indian scout would dress himself up with twigs, so as to look like a bush. Many of these things the white people learned to practice also.

The Indians were very cruel; it was part of their plan to strike terror by their severity. This is why they tortured their prisoners to death and disfigured the dead, and why they slew women and children as well as men. They not only put some of their prisoners to death in the most cruel way their ingenuity could devise, but, in some tribes, they even devoured them afterward. Sometimes, however, a prisoner was adopted into an Indian family, and kindly treated. Many hundreds of white children were thus adopted, and forgot their own language. Some of them afterward engaged in

war against their own people. One boy, named Thomas Rice, was carried off from Massachusetts in childhood, and became a chief of the tribe which had captured him.

The settlers learned after a while many ways of defending themselves. They built block-houses in every exposed settlement, for refuge in case of attack. When Indians were discovered lurking about in the night, a messenger would be sent from the block-house to warn the sleeping settlers. This messenger would creep up to a window and tap on it, whispering, "Indians!" Then the family within would get up, and, without speaking or making a light, gather the most necessary things and hurry away along dark paths through the woods to the block-house. In some of the more exposed regions the dogs were even trained not to bark unless commanded to.

Defense of the settlements.



BLOCK-HOUSE.

A town in Maine was attacked and almost destroyed by Indians, when one man sent his family by boat out of the back door of his fortified house, remaining there alone. By frequently changing his hat and coat, and then appearing without a hat and then without a coat, and by giving orders in a loud voice, he made the Indians believe that his house was too full of men for them to attack it. Some Swedish women, near where Philadelphia now stands, saw Indians coming, and took refuge in their fortified church, carrying with them a kettle of hot soap. They defended themselves until their husbands came by throwing the boiling soap, with a ladle, at every Indian who approached the church. A maid-servant in Massachusetts, left alone with little children, drove away an Indian, who tried to enter the house, by

Anecdotes of defense.

firing a musket at him and throwing a shovelful of live coals on his head. A young girl in Maine held a door shut until thirteen women and children had time to escape by a back door into a block-house. The Indians, when they got in, knocked the girl down, but did not kill her.

Alarms

In some, if not all, of the colonies, the firing of three shots in succession was the sign of danger. Every man who heard it was required to pass the alarm to those farther away, by firing three times, and then to go in the direction in which the shots had been heard. In many places large dogs were kept and trained to hunt for Indians, as highway robbers were hunted down in that day in England. In all exposed places, a part or all of the men took their arms to church with them.

Courage of the people

The people became very brave, and were fierce and even cruel during these long-continued Indian wars. A wounded soldier would beg to have a loaded gun put into his hands that he might, before he died, kill one more Indian.

Escape of captives.

Captives often escaped from the Indians by ingenious devices, and sometimes suffered dreadful hardships in getting back to the settlements. A young girl in New England, after three weeks of captivity, made a bridle out of bark, caught a horse running in the woods, and, by riding all night, reached the settlement. Two little lads named Bradley got away, but they were tracked by the Indian dogs, who came up with them while they were hidden in a hollow log. They fed the dogs part of their provisions to make them friendly. After traveling nine days the elder fell down with exhaustion, but the younger, who was the more resolute,

dragged himself starving into a settlement in Maine, and sent help to his brother.

Hannah Dustin, Mary Neff, and a boy were carried off from Haverhill, Massachusetts. At midnight, while encamped on an island, they got hatchets and killed ten Indians, and then escaped in a canoe down the river. This bold escape soon became famous in the colonies, and the Governor of Maryland, hearing of it, sent to the returned captives a present for their courage.

Hannah Dustin's escape.



CHAPTER XVI.

LIFE IN THE COLONIAL TIME.

WHEN people first came to this country they had to take up with such houses as they could get. In Virginia and New England, as in New York and Philadelphia, holes were dug in the ground for dwelling-places by some of the first settlers. In some places bark wigwams were made, like those of the Indians. Sometimes a rude cabin was built of round logs, and without a floor. As time advanced, better houses were built. Some of these were of hewed logs, some of planks, split, or sawed out by hand. The richer people built good houses soon after they came. Most of these had in the middle a large room, called "the hall."

First houses of the colonists.

Chimneys and windows.

The chimneys were generally very large, with wide fireplaces. Sometimes there were seats inside the fireplace, and children, sitting on these seats in the evening, amused themselves by watching the stars through the top of the chimney. In the early houses most of the windows had paper instead of glass. This paper was oiled, so as to let light come through.

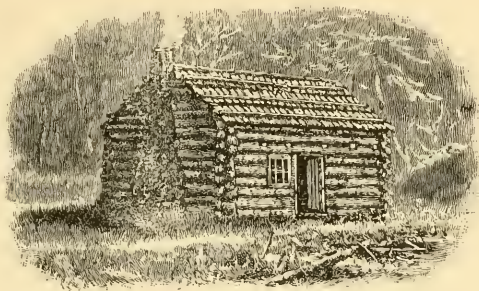
Furniture and dishes.

Except in the houses of rich people the furniture was scant and rough. Benches, stools, and tables were home-made. Beds were often filled with mistletoe, the down from cat-tail flags, or the feathers of wild-pigeons. People who were not rich brought their food to the table in wooden trenchers, or trays, and ate off wooden plates. Some used square blocks of wood instead of plates. Neither rich nor poor, in England or America, had forks when the first colonies were settled. Meat was cut with a knife and eaten from the fingers. On the tables of well-to-do people pewter dishes were much used, and a row of shining pewter in an open cupboard, called a dresser, was a sign of good housekeeping. The richest people had silver-ware for use on great occasions. They also had stately furniture brought from England. But carpets were hardly ever seen. The floor of the best room was strewn with sand, which was marked off in ornamental figures. There was no wall-paper until long after 1700, but rich cloths and tapestry hung on the walls of the finest houses.

How the colonists cooked their food.

Cooking was done in front of fireplaces in skillets and on griddles that stood upon legs, so that coals could be put under them, and in pots and kettles that hung over the fire on a swinging crane, so that they could be drawn out or pushed back. Sometimes there

was an oven, for baking, built in the side of the chimney. Meat was roasted on a spit in front of the fire. The spit was an iron rod thrust through the piece to be roasted, and turned by a crank. A whole pig or fowl was sometimes hung up before the fire and turned about



CABIN OF ROUND LOGS.

while it roasted. Often pieces of meat were broiled by throwing them on the live coals.

A mug of home-brewed beer, with bread and cheese, **What they ate** or a porridge of peas or beans, boiled with a little meat, constituted the breakfast of the early colonists. Neither tea nor coffee was known in England or this country until long after the first colonies were settled. When tea came in, it became a fashionable drink, and was served to company from pretty little china cups, set on lacquered tables. Mush, made of Indian-corn meal, was eaten for supper.

In proportion to the population, more wine and spirits were consumed at that time than now. **What they drank** The very strong Madeira wine was drunk at genteel tables. Rum, which from its destructive effects was known everywhere by the nickname of "kill-devil," was much used then. At every social gathering rum was provided. Hard cider was a common drink, as was mead or metheglin, which was made from honey. There was much shameful drunkenness. Peach-brandy was

used in the Middle and Southern colonies, and was very ruinous to health and morals.

What they wore.



A CALASH.

How they traveled.

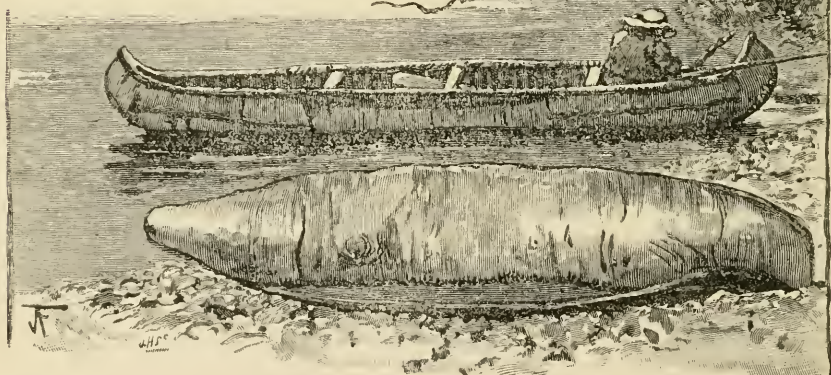
People of wealth made great display in their dress. Much lace and many silver buckles and buttons were worn. Workingmen of all sorts wore leather, deer-skin, or coarse canvas breeches. The stockings worn by men were long, the breeches were short, and buckled, or otherwise fastened, at the knees.

Our forefathers traveled about in canoes and little sailing-boats called shallops. Most of the canoes would hold about six men, but some were large enough to carry forty or more. For a long time there were no roads except Indian trails and bridle-paths, which could only be traveled on foot or on horseback. Goods were carried on pack-horses, or in boats and little vessels. When roads were made, wagons came into use.

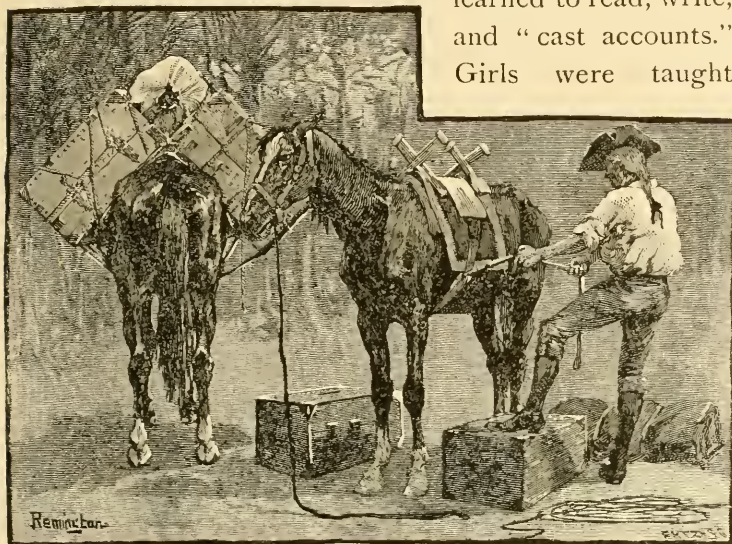
Their education.

In a life so hard and busy as that of the early settlers,

EIRCH
CANOES.



there was little time for education. The schools were few and generally poor. Boys, when taught at all, learned to read, write, and "cast accounts." Girls were taught



PACK-HORSES.

even less. Many of the children born when the colonies were new grew up unable to write their names. There were few books at first, and no newspapers until after 1700. There was little to occupy the mind except the Sunday sermon, which was often one or two hours in length.



A SCHOOL SCENE IN 1740. THE MASTER AND HIS ASSISTANT WEAR HATS.

Their amuse-
ments.

In all the colonies people were very fond of dancing-parties. Weddings were times of great excitement and often of much drinking. In some of the colonies wed-



A WEDDING IN NEW AMSTERDAM.

ding festivities were continued for several days. Even funerals were occasions of feasting, and sometimes of excessive drinking. In the Middle and Southern colonies the people were fond of horse-racing, cock-fighting, and many other rude sports brought from England. New England people made their militia-trainings the occasions

tor feasting and amusement, fighting sham battles, and playing many rough, old-fashioned games. Coasting on the snow, skating, and sleighing were first brought into America from Holland by the Dutch settlers in New York.

In all the colonies there was a great deal of hunting and fishing. The woods were full of deer and wild-turkeys; a whole deer was sometimes sold for a shilling. The rivers were alive with water-fowl and fish. From childhood the colonists learned to love the sports of the forest and stream, and much idleness was produced by this fondness for hunting and fishing. In the up-country of the Southern and Middle colonies there grew a race of hunters who led half-savage lives in the woods, and often refused obedience to authority. Almost as wild as the savages, they formed a race of warlike men, who made successful rangers in the Indian wars, famous riflemen in the Revolution, and daring pioneers when the country beyond the mountains came to be settled.

Deer were caught in iron traps large enough to be dangerous to men. Sometimes a hunter inclosed himself in a deer-skin so as to creep up near to a herd of these timid creatures. Horses were trained to walk gently by the side of the hunter, in order to conceal him until the deer was killed. A ring of men would surround a tract of country and then draw in toward the middle, killing deer, wolves, and wild-turkeys, whenever these creatures tried to escape. A circle of fire was sometimes lighted in the dry woods, and, as this burned to the center, the men followed on the outside of the ring and killed all the game inclosed. Foxes were baited with sled-loads



DUTCH WOMAN OF THE TIME,
SKATING.

Abundance of
game and fish.

Modes of taking
game.

of codfish-heads, and then shot by men in concealment as they came to eat. Wolves were caught on large fish-hooks bound together and inclosed in tallow. As there was no end of game, animals were slain without fear of exterminating them. A whole flock of wild-turkeys was now and then taken in a single trap. Wild-pigeons, which flew in such numbers as to darken the sky, were slaughtered by the cart-load.

Modes of fishing.

Vast crowds of men gathered at the falls of the New England rivers when the salmon and shad were running up, and took the fish in nets, until their pack-horses were loaded with them. In the shallow waters of Virginia and Maryland men rode into the streams at night, with torches in their hands, sitting on horseback to spear fish.

Fairs.

Fairs after the English pattern were held in the Middle and Southern colonies. These were rendered attractive by the rough old English sports. A live goose was hung head downward, and horsemen riding below at full speed tried to pull off its head. A greased pig was given to the man who could catch it and hold it by the tail. Laced hats, boots, and other valuable articles were hung on top of greased poles, to be taken by him who could climb for them. The efforts of men to hold greased pigs or climb greased poles gave great amusement to the crowd. Sometimes such cruel and brutal sports as the baiting of bulls with dogs were enjoyed by our ancestors, who were not so humane as they might have been.

CHAPTER XVII.

FARMING AND SHIPPING IN THE COLONIES.

WE have seen how the people who came first to North America expected to find either a way to India, or mines like those discovered farther southward. But when they found that they could not secure either the spices of India or the gold and silver of Peru, they turned their attention to the soil, to see what could be got by agriculture. But at first their plans for farming in America were as wild as their plans for getting to India. They spent much time in trying to produce silk and wine, two things which can be raised with profit only in old and well-settled countries. They also tried to raise madder, coffee, tea, olives, and the cacaonut, from which chocolate is made.

Early experiments in silk-raising, vine-growing, etc.

John Rolfe, the husband of Pocahontas, in 1612 took a lesson from the Indian fields about him, and succeeded in growing tobacco for the English market. Before this time, English smokers and snuff-takers got their tobacco from the Spaniards. The plant was well suited to the Virginia climate, and it was easy to ship tobacco from the farms, which were all on the banks of the rivers. Gold and silver coins were scarce in those days, and, in half a dozen years after John Rolfe planted the first tobacco, it had become the only money of Virginia. Almost everything bought and sold in Virginia and Maryland, before the Revolution, was paid for in tobacco.

Tobacco-growing in Virginia and Maryland.

The colony of South Carolina maintained itself in a rather poor way, during the first twenty-six years of

Rice produced in South Carolina.

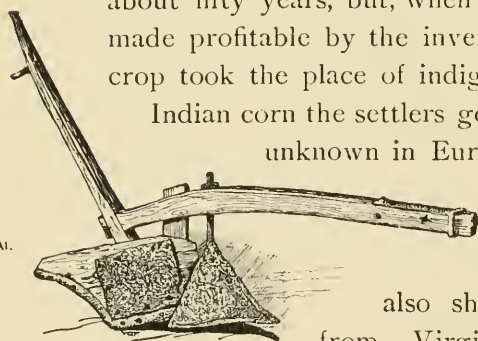
its existence, chiefly by shipping lumber to the West Indies, and by making tar and pitch. But there was living in Charleston, in 1696, a gentleman named Thomas Smith, who had seen rice cultivated in Madagascar. One day when a sea-captain, an old friend of his, sailed into Charleston Harbor from Madagascar, Thomas Smith got from him a bag of seed-rice. This was carefully sown in a wet place in Smith's garden in Charleston. It grew, and soon Carolina was changed into a land of great rice-plantations. The raising of rice spread into Georgia when that colony was settled.

Eliza Lucas introduces indigo-culture.

In 1741 an energetic young lady, Miss Eliza Lucas, began to try experiments in growing the indigo-plant in South Carolina. A frost destroyed the first crop that she planted, and a worm cut down the next. The indigo-maker brought from the West Indies tried to deceive her afterward, but by 1745 this persevering young lady had proved that indigo could be grown in South Carolina, and in two years more two hundred thousand pounds of it were exported. It was a leading crop for about fifty years, but, when the growing of cotton was made profitable by the invention of the cotton-gin, that crop took the place of indigo.

Indian corn the settlers got from the Indians. It was unknown in Europe. From it was made the most of the bread eaten by Americans before the Revolution. It was also shipped to the West Indies from Virginia and North Carolina.

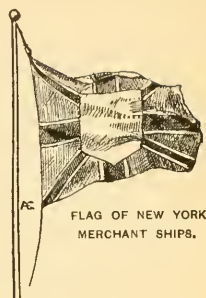
New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania formed the great wheat region of the colonial time. These colo-



COLONIAL.
PLOW.

Indian corn, wheat, and potatoes.

nies sent wheat, flour, and "hard-tack" bread in large quantities to the West Indies and the countries on the Mediterranean Sea. Many thousands of great country wagons were employed in bringing grain to Philadelphia. Potatoes had been brought to Europe probably from South America; but they were unknown to the Indians in what is now the United States. They were taken to Virginia at the first settlement of Jamestown. Potatoes were not planted in New England fields until 1718. It was thought that, if a man were to eat potatoes every day for seven years, he would die.



FLAG OF NEW YORK
MERCHANT SHIPS.

Cattle and hogs were brought from England very early, and were grown by thousands in the colonies. For the most part they ran in the woods, having marks on them to show to whom they belonged. Many cattle grew up without marks of ownership, and were hunted as wild. There were "cow-pens" established for raising cattle in the wilderness, something like the "ranches" in the Western country to-day. The horses of that day were small and hardy. When not in use they ran at large in the woods, and some of them quite escaped from their owners, so that after a while there came to be a race of wild horses. It was accounted rare sport to ride after a wild horse until he was tired out, and so to capture him.

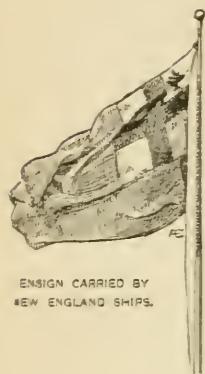
Cattle, hogs, and
horses.

The English plow of that time was very heavy, and drawn by six horses or as many oxen. Efforts were made to introduce this to the colonies, but it was not suited to a new country. The plow most used in the colonies was a clumsy thing, with thin plates of iron nailed over the rude wooden plowshares. There were

Farming-
implements.

many stumps and few plows. All the tools were heavy and awkward.

Fishing, whaling,
and sea-going in
New England.



ENSIGN CARRIED BY
NEW ENGLAND SHIPS.

The Middle colonies raised wheat, the colonies on Chesapeake Bay tobacco, and the Southern colonies rice and indigo; but the soil and climate of New England were not suited to any agricultural staple of great value. So the New-Englanders were driven to follow the sea. They built a great many ships, some of which they sold to English merchants; others they used in fishing for codfish and mackerel. These fisheries became very profitable to them. When the Long-Islanders discovered the art of taking whales along the coast, the New England people learned it, and became the most prosperous whalers in the world. The products of their fisheries were sent to many countries, and New England ships were seen in almost every sea. Boston and Newport were the chief New England seaports.

Trade of New
York and Phila-
delphia.

The people of New York also built many ships which were remarkable for their great size and the long voyages they made. But before the Revolution New York was not so large a town as Boston. Philadelphia, which was started later than the other leading cities, grew fast, and became the greatest of all the cities in the colonies. But Philadelphia contained only about thirty thousand people when the Revolution broke out.

Pirates.

There were many pirates on the coast, who sometimes grew so numerous and bold as to interrupt trade. Some of them were caught and hanged.

Captain Kidd,
Steed Bonnet,
and Worley.

Captain William Kidd, of New York, was sent out in 1695 to put down the pirates that infested the Indian Ocean. The expense of his outfit was borne by certain

gentlemen in America and England, who were to share his spoils. Not falling in with any pirates, he took to piratical ways himself. When he came back to America he was arrested by Lord Bellomont, Governor of New York and New England, and sent to England for trial and execution. In 1717, Steed Bonnet and Richard Worley, two pirates with their crews, had taken possession of the mouth of Cape Fear River in North Carolina, whence they committed great depredations on the commerce of South Carolina. Colonel Rhett, of South Carolina, pursued Bonnet into Cape Fear River, and, after a fight, captured him and thirty of his men. They were tried and hanged at Charleston. Governor Johnson, of South Carolina, took another vessel and attacked Richard Worley and his pirates, who fought until all were dead but Worley and one man, and these were taken, desperately wounded, and hanged.

One of the most infamous of all the pirates of the coast was Edward Teach, who, under the name of Blackbeard, made himself the terror of all seamen on the coast from Philadelphia southward. He had his refuge also in the shallow waters of the North Carolina coast. A little more than a year after the overthrow of Bonnet, Lieutenant Maynard sailed from Virginia and fought Blackbeard in Ocracoke Inlet. After a hand-to-hand struggle all the pirates were killed or wounded, and Maynard sailed back with Blackbeard's head hanging at his bowsprit. So many of the pirates were captured in the next half-dozen years that they gave little trouble afterward.



PIRATE BLACKBEARD,
AS SHOWN IN A
PICTURE OF THE TIME.

CHAPTER XVIII.

BOND-SERVANTS AND SLAVES IN THE COLONIES.

Tenants.

WHEN the English people came to this country they brought English ways with them. In England at that time poor people had much less liberty than now. The lands of rich men were cultivated by tenants, who not only paid rent, but owed much respect and service to their "lord," as they called the owner of their lands. If these tenants did not pay their rent faithfully, they could be punished. Many of the people sent to Virginia at first were tenants, who were expected to work on other people's land in a sort of subjection. They were to pay half of all they produced to the land-owner, and they were bound to stay on the land for seven years. Tenants were also sent to Maryland, and the Dutch established the same system in New York.

Bond-servants.

Besides tenants of this sort, there were sent to Virginia people of a poorer class, who were called "indentured servants." Those sent at first were poor boys and girls picked up in the streets, and bound to serve until they were of age. After a while there were sent to Virginia and to New England adult servants, bound to serve for seven or ten years, but afterward they were only required to serve four years to pay their passage. This way of getting laborers became very common, and many thousands of poor men, women, and children, were sent over in this temporary bondage. During the time of their service they could be bought and sold like slaves. They were often whipped and otherwise cruelly



ENGLISH FARM LABORER,
SEVENTEENTH
CENTURY.

treated when they chanced to fall into the hands of hard-hearted masters.

There were people in England at that time called "spirits" and "crimps." By many false stories they

"Spirits" and
"crimps."



KIDNAPPING A MAN FOR THE COLONIES.

persuaded poor men to go to the colonies as servants. Sometimes the crimps entrapped a man aboard ship, where he was detained and carried off to the colonies against his will. This was called "trapanning" a man. They often kidnapped or "spirited" away children

and sold them into service in the colonies. Sometimes people who wished to inherit an estate sent away the true heir and had him sold in America. One lad, who would have been Lord Annesley, was entrapped on ship-board by his uncle and sold into Pennsylvania. He was twelve years in bondage, after which he returned to England and proved his right to the lordship, though he died before he came into possession of it.

Great number of
bond-servants, or
"redemptioners."

Bond-servants were in some places called "redemptioners." About 1670 fifteen hundred of them were sold in Virginia every year. In Pennsylvania the men who took droves of redemptioners about the country and peddled them to the farmers were called "soul-drivers." Many thousands of German emigrants were brought to America by ship-captains from Holland and sold into a temporary bondage in Pennsylvania. Many of the bond-servants, when their time was out, got land and grew rich. But the lot of the poor man was much harder in that time than in our day.

Convict-servants.

The English laws in old times were very severe against small crimes. A man could be hanged for stealing bread to satisfy his hunger. Many people sentenced to death for small offenses were pardoned on condition of their going to the colonies. In America convicts were sold for seven years. The Americans complained bitterly that such bad people were forced on them, and one witty American writer offered to send a present of American rattlesnakes for the king's garden in return for his convicts.

Introduction of
slaves.

In 1619, the year that the Great Charter reached Virginia, there came a Dutch ship into James River, which sold nineteen negroes to the planters. They were the

first slaves in America. In that day it was thought right to make slaves of negroes because they were heathens; but for a long time the number of slaves that came into the colonies was small. White bond-servants did the most of the work in Maryland and Virginia until about the close of the seventeenth century, when the high price of tobacco caused a great many negroes to be brought. About the same time the introduction of rice into South Carolina created a great demand for slaves.

There were slaves in all the colonies. But in the colonies far to the north there was no crop that would make their labor profitable. Negroes in New England were mostly kept for house-servants. In New York city and in Philadelphia there were a great many, but not many in the country regions about these cities, where wheat, which was the chief crop, did not require much hard labor. The larger number of negroes were taken to the colonies which raised tobacco, rice, and indigo. Negroes were especially fitted to endure a hot and malarial climate. After the Revolution, slavery was abolished in the colonies that had few negroes. But, where almost all the labor was done by slaves, it was much harder to get rid of slavery. This led to the difference between free and slave States, and at last to our civil war.

The slaves at first did not speak English, and they practiced many wild African customs, especially at the burial of their dead. Some of them were fierce, and the white people were afraid of them. Great harshness was used to subdue them. The negroes often made bloody insurrections, which were put down with great severi-

Distribution of slaves.



SIR JOHN HAWKINS,
THE FIRST ENGLISH SLAVE-
TRADER.

Character of the slaves. Insurrections.

ty. One of these was in New York city in 1712. Twenty-four negroes were put to death on this occasion, some of them in the cruel ways used in that time. In 1740 there was an uprising of slaves in South Carolina, and a battle between them and the white people, in which the negroes were routed. In 1741, on a bare suspicion of intended insurrection, thirty-three slaves were executed in New York, thirteen of them by fire. Like severity was shown in other colonies, for people were more cruel in that day than in later times.

Indian slaves.

Many of the Indians were reduced to perpetual slavery. These were usually the captives spared after Indian wars. They were often shipped from one colony to another, so as to remove them from a chance of communicating with wild Indians who spoke the same language or belonged to allied tribes with themselves. But the Indians did not bear slavery so well as the Africans, and the most of them perished from hard labor, severe punishment, and the loss of the liberty which an Indian prizes above everything.

CHAPTER XIX.

LAWS AND USAGES IN THE COLONIES.

**Laws against
lying, profanity,
and Sabbath-
breaking.**

OUR forefathers brought many curious old customs and laws from England. The laws of that time were very meddlesome. Men were punished for lying, which nowadays we think is only to be cured, if it can be cured at all, by good example and good teaching. A fine was

imposed on profane swearing by the laws of nearly all the colonies; in New England the tongue of the swearer was sometimes pinched in the opening of a split stick. In all the colonies there were laws about keeping the Sabbath; in many of them there were punishments for not going to church. In New England the Sunday laws were rigorously enforced, and the Sabbath was made to begin at sunset on Saturday evening, at which hour all work must cease. The people were at first called to church by beating a drum in the streets. For more than a hundred years after the settlement of Massachusetts, people were not allowed to sit on Boston Common on Sunday, or to walk in the streets except to church, or to take a breath of air on a hot Sunday by the sea-shore directly in front of their own doors. Two young people were arrested in Connecticut for sitting together on Sunday under a tree in an orchard.



At church.

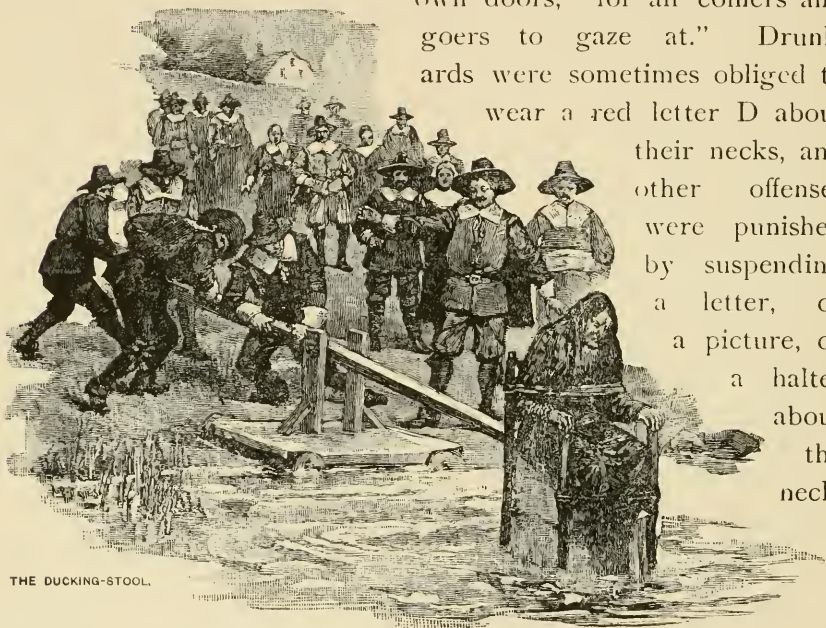
In the first meeting-houses in New England the men and women usually sat apart, and the children were put in the gallery. Men with rods in their hands kept the boys and girls in order during the long service, and a tithing-man kept the grown people awake in the church below. This he did in some places with a rod, which had a ball on one end and a fox-tail on the other. With the ball he tapped any man found asleep, but if a woman forgot herself and took a little nap, she was awakened by the fox-tail brushing her face. In the Northern States the churches had no fire in them, but little foot-stoves were carried to meeting. In all the colonies people were seated in church according to their dignity or wealth. The pew of a Gov-

ernor or the Speaker of the Assembly often had some sort of ornament on it as a mark of distinction.

Laws against
scolding and
drunkenness.

If men were punished for swearing, women were also forbidden to be too free with their tongues. In Virginia and some other colonies, women, for scolding or slander, were put upon a ducking-stool and dipped in the water—to cool them off, perhaps. In New England they were gagged and set by their own doors, “for all comers and goers to gaze at.” Drunkards were sometimes obliged to

wear a red letter D about their necks, and other offenses were punished by suspending a letter, or a picture, or a halter about the neck.

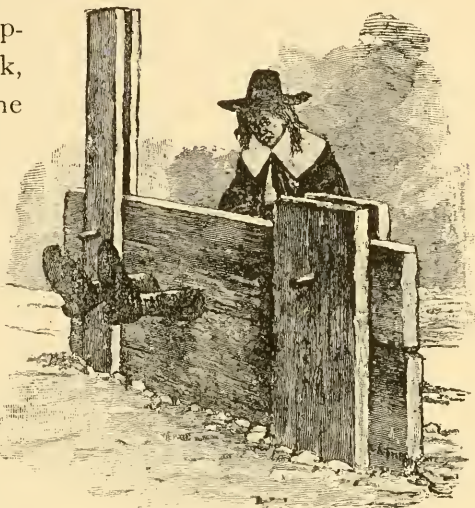


THE DUCKING-STOOL.

Other curious
punishments.

Standing with the head and hands fast in the pillory, to be pelted with eggs by the crowd, and sitting with the feet fast in the stocks, were forms of punishment. In some places there were cages, in which criminals were confined in sight of the people. Punishments in the pillory and stocks, or in a cage, were inflicted on some occasion of

public concourse—a lecture-day or a market-day—to make the shame greater. More severe than stocks or pillory were the customary punishments of whipping on the bare back, cropping or boring the ears, and branding the hand with a hot iron. There were also sometimes, for great crimes, cruel punishments of burning alive, or hanging alive in chains, but these were very rare.



THE STOCKS.

Our forefathers were more superstitious than people are now, and they were very much afraid of witches. This foolish belief in witchcraft prevailed both in England and America. People sometimes nailed up horseshoes, or hung up laurel-boughs in their houses, to protect themselves from magic charms. When butter would not come for churning, red-hot horseshoes were dropped into the milk to “burn the witch out.” When pigs were sick and thought to be bewitched, their ears and tails were cut off and burned. There were people tried in almost every colony for witchcraft. In England and in many other countries, executions for witchcraft were more common than in any of the colonies. In England and in America old women were sometimes put into the water, to find out whether they were witches or not. If

Charms against
witches.

a woman were a witch she would float ; if not, she would go to the bottom, according to the popular belief.

The Salem witchcraft excitement.

Of the many excitements about witchcraft in the colonies, the one that went to the furthest extreme was that in Salem, Massachusetts, in 1692. So great was the agitation that the most serious people lost their self-possession, and some poor folks even believed themselves

to be witches, and confessed it. In the fright and indignation that prevailed, twenty persons were executed, and the jails were crowded with the accused. One fourth of the inhabitants of Salem moved away, afraid either of the witches or of being charged with witchcraft.

At length reason

returned, the prisoners were released, and there was the deepest grief that the fanaticism had gone so far. There has never been an execution for witchcraft in this country from that day to this, though there are still some ignorant people who believe in such things.

Religious persecution in the colonies.

In most of the colonies there was, at some time, persecution for religious opinions. In Virginia, only the



PUNISHMENT OF A DRUNKARD.

Church of England form of worship was allowed at first, and Catholics, Puritans, Quakers, Presbyterians, and Baptists were persecuted. In Massachusetts, for a long time, only the Puritan or Congregational worship, as set up by law, was allowed. Those who advocated other doctrines were punished, and many Quakers were whipped, and some of them even put to death, for coming back after they had been banished. Lord Baltimore wished to give toleration in Maryland to all who believed in Christ, but the law-makers of Maryland afterward made laws to annoy those who were of Lord Baltimore's own religion—the Roman Catholic. Roger Williams, who was banished from Massachusetts for his opinions, founded what is now called Rhode Island, on the plan of entire liberty in religious matters. He went further than Lord Baltimore, and gave to Hebrews and to unbelievers the same liberty with Christians. In Pennsylvania, where the Friends or Quakers were in the majority, there was toleration; and persecution ceased in all the colonies before the Revolution.

CHAPTER XX.

THE SPANIARDS IN FLORIDA AND THE FRENCH IN CANADA.

HITHERTO we have spoken only of English colonies in North America, but a great part of the history of the English colonies consisted in conflicts with the neighboring colonies of other nationalities. We must now go

French and Spanish neighbors.

back for a moment and glance at the rise of these establishments of France and Spain in North America.

Ponce de Leon
discovers Florida.

In 1513, twenty-one years after Columbus made his great discovery, Ponce de Leon, an old Spanish explorer, set sail from the island of Porto Rico to discover a land reported to lie to the northward of Cuba, and which had somehow come to be called Bimini. It was said to contain a fountain, by bathing in which an old man would be made young again. On Easter Sunday Ponce discovered the mainland, which he called Florida, from Pascua Florida, the Spanish name for Easter Sunday. In 1521 Ponce tried to settle Florida, but his party was attacked and he was mortally wounded by the Indians, without ever finding the fountain of youth. Florida was then believed to be an island. After the death of Ponce de Leon, other Spanish adventurers explored the coast from Labrador southward, and even tried to find gold-mines and plant colonies in the interior of the country.

De Soto's expedition to the
Mississippi.

The most famous of these expeditions was that of Hernando de Soto, a Spanish explorer, who reached Florida in 1539. He marched through Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. He was determined to find some land yielding gold, like Mexico and Peru. But he treated the Indians cruelly, killing some of them wantonly, and forcing others to serve him as slaves. The savages, in turn, attacked him again and again, until his party was sadly reduced. De Soto tried to descend the Mississippi River to the Gulf of Mexico, but at the mouth of the Red River he died of a fever. His body was buried in the Mississippi, to keep the Indians from disfiguring it in revenge. A few of his

followers reached the Gulf and got to the Spanish settlements in Mexico.

By virtue of these explorations the Spaniards laid claim to the whole continent of North America. In 1565 a Spanish party under Menendez arrived in Florida. They put to the sword the members of a French Huguenot colony already planted there, and then laid the foundation of St. Augustine, forty-two years before the first permanent English colony landed at Jamestown. St. Augustine is thus the oldest city in the United States. But the Spaniards were too busy in Mexico and in Central and South America to push their settlements farther to the north, though they were very jealous of the English colonies, and especially of South Carolina and Georgia.

St. Augustine
founded.

In 1524 an Italian named Verrazano explored North America from about the region of North Carolina to the coast of Newfoundland. As Verrazano had been sent out by Francis I, King of France, to discover a way to China, the French claimed a great part of North America by virtue of his discoveries.

Verrazano's
voyage.

Ten years after Verrazano's voyage, a French captain named Jacques Cartier was sent by Francis I to find a way to China and the East Indies, which was at that time the chief motive for all explorations. Cartier examined the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador. The latter was found so barren that it was thought to be the land allotted to Cain. On this voyage Cartier got into the bay now called the Bay of St. Lawrence; but he returned to France without discovering the magnificent river of that name. The next year he returned and entered the river St. Lawrence, hoping that he might

Cartier's voyages.

find a way by fresh water to get through to the other side of the land, and so to China and India. He reached Quebec, the Indian inhabitants of which dressed some of their men up like devils to frighten Cartier from going farther up the river. But he pushed on in small boats to Montreal, where there was a fortified Indian town, and where he was well received. An effort was made to plant a French colony in Canada in 1541, but the attempt was defeated by many misfortunes.

Champlain
founds Quebec.

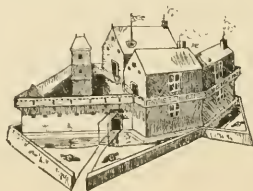


CHAMPLAIN.

Sixty years passed before the French again made serious efforts to colonize in the part of America which they called New France. Then, in 1603, new exertions were made under the leadership of one of the most remarkable men of his age, Samuel de Champlain, who became the founder of Canada. After some ineffectual attempts to plant on the coast, and many careful explorations, Champlain founded Quebec in 1608, the year after Jamestown was planted in Virginia. As the Jamestown colony lived by producing tobacco, Quebec existed from the first on the profits of a successful Indian trade. It was always the capital of the vast establishments of the French in America.

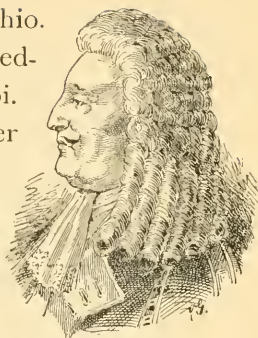
French explora-
tions in the inter-
rior.

The French, like the English, were trying to find the Pacific Ocean, and they were much more daring in their explorations than the English colonists, whose chief business was farming. A French explorer named Joliet reached the Mississippi in 1673, and another Frenchman, La Salle, explored the great country west of the



QUEBEC IN CHAMPLAIN'S TIME,
AFTER A DRAWING BY HIM.

Alleghany Mountains, and discovered the Ohio. After many disasters and failures, La Salle succeeded in reaching the mouth of the Mississippi. Father Hennepin, a priest, explored the upper Mississippi. The French then laid claim to all the country west of the Alleghanies. Over this region they established posts and mission-houses, while the English contented themselves with multiplying their farming settlements east of the mountains. To make sure of their title, the French, in later times, buried metal plates at certain points in the Mississippi Valley, on which were engraved the claim of their king to the country.



LA SALLE.

When La Salle reached the mouth of the Mississippi, he took possession of the country in the name of Louis XIV, and called it Louisiana, in honor of that king. The settlement of Louisiana was begun in 1699. The French held the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, the two great water-ways to the heart of North America, and they controlled most of the Indian tribes by means of missionaries and traders. They endeavored to connect Canada and Louisiana by a chain of fortified posts, and so to hold for France an empire, in the heart of America, larger than France itself.

Founding of Louisiana and of French posts among the Indians.

But the weakness of the French in America lay in the fewness of their people. Canada, the oldest of their colonies, was in a latitude too cold to be a prosperous farming country in that day. Besides, its growth was checked by the system of lordships with tenants, which some of the English colonies had also tried. But inferior as the French were in numbers, they were strong in their military character, for they

FRENCH GENTLEMAN
OF THE TIME.

Weakness and strength of the French in America.



COUREUR DES BOIS,
OR WANDERING FUR-TRADER,
OF CANADA.

The French influence over the Indians.



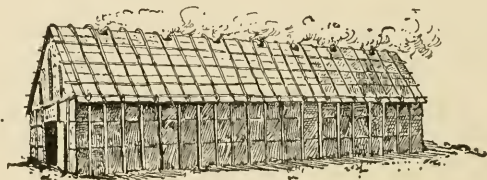
MISSIONARY PRIEST.

were almost all soldiers. The English were divided into colonies, and could never be made to act together; but the French, from Canada to the Mississippi, were absolutely subjected to their governors.

The French were also rendered terrible to the English colonies by their skill in controlling the Indians. The great business of the French in Canada was the fur-trade, and this was pushed with an energy that quite left the English traders behind. The French drew furs from the shores of Lake Superior and from beyond the Mississippi. The French traders gained great influence over the Indians. The English treated the Indians as inferiors; the French lived among them on terms of equality, and, in many cases, intermarried with them. The French also gained control of the

Indian tribes by means of missionary priests, who risked their lives and spent their days in the dirty cabins of the savages to teach them religion. The powerful Iroquois confederacy, known as the "Five Nations," and afterward as the "Six Nations," sided with the English, and hated and killed the French. They lived in what is now the State of New York. But the most of the tribes were managed by the French, who sent missionaries to convert them, ambassadors to flatter them, gunsmiths to mend their arms, and military men to teach them to fortify, and to direct their attacks against the settlements of the English.

LONG-HOUSE
OF THE IROQUOIS.



The wars between the French colony in Canada and the English colonies in what is now the United States were caused partly by wars between France and England in Europe. But there were also causes enough for enmity in the state of affairs on this side of the ocean. First, there was always a quarrel about territory. The French claimed that part of what is now the State of Maine which lies east of the Kennebec River, while the English claimed to the St. Croix. The French also claimed all the country back of the Alleghanies. With a population not more than one twentieth of that of one of the English colonies, they spread their claim over all the country watered by the lakes and the tributaries of the Mississippi, includ-

Subjects of dispute between the French and English in America.



FRENCH CLAIM
IN THE PRESENT
STATE OF MAINE.



PRESENT TERRITORY OF THE
UNITED STATES,
SHOWING BY WHOM
IT WAS CLAIMED
BEFORE 1763.

ing more than half of the present United States. Second, both France and England wished to control the fisheries of the eastern coast. Third, both the French and the English endeavored to get the entire control of the fur-trade. Fourth, the French were Catholics and the English mostly Protestants. In that age men were very bigoted about religion, and hated and feared those who differed from them.

CHAPTER XXI.

COLONIAL WARS WITH FRANCE AND SPAIN.

"King William's War" begun.

THERE were four wars with the French during the colonial time. The first was called "King William's War," from William III, King of England. It lasted from 1689 to 1697. In this war the first severe blow fell on the settlements of Maine, where the Indians in the French interest attacked the settlers in June, 1689, paying old grudges by torturing their victims. But the French did not escape. The Iroquois Indians were in alliance with the English, and had, besides, their own reasons for taking revenge on the French. In this same summer of 1689 they attacked the settlements about Montreal at daybreak, and killed, in their horrible way, two hundred people, and carried as many more into captivity.

Frontenac.

These ravages of the Iroquois, carried almost into the town of Montreal, created a panic in the whole French colony, which had been almost ruined by bad govern-

ment since their former governor Count Frontenac had been removed. The King of France found it necessary to send Frontenac, who was now in his seventieth year, to encourage the Canadians and carry on the war with the Iroquois. The old governor resolved to show the power of Canada, not by striking the Iroquois, but by striking past them, so as to make the English settlements feel the terror suffered by the French. He thought by such acts to win the respect and perhaps the friendship of the Iroquois.

Frontenac sent out three war-parties composed of French soldiers and Canadian Indians. One of these parties marched against Schenectady, and the story of this expedition will serve to give us a notion of the general character of many attacks that occurred about this time. The march was made in winter through deep snows, the French and Indians enduring incredible hardships.

Destruction of
Schenectady.

“They marched for two-and-twenty daies

All through the deepest snow,

And on a dismal winter night

They struck the cruel blow.”

So runs one of those old ballads by which our forefathers celebrated such bloody occurrences. The town of Schenectady was surrounded with palisades, through which there were two gates. But so secure were the inhabitants, defended, as they thought, by hundreds of miles of snow-drifts, that the gates were open and the whole town fast asleep. When warned to keep watch, the people had made light of the matter by constructing snow images of sentinels at each gate. The French and Indians scattered themselves all through the town in

small parties, so as to waylay the doors of every house to prevent escape. Then the war-whoop was raised, and the work of slaughter began. Men and women alike were shot and tomahawked: on children no ammunition was wasted—they were killed by being dashed against the door-posts of the houses or thrown into the fire. The bodies of the dead were outraged, and the village was set in flames. The Indians in the town, to the number of thirty, belonging to the Mohawk tribe of Iroquois, were spared and sent home, in order to detach their tribe from the English interest. Sixty of the inhabitants were killed in this attack. Some escaped out of their beds and ran toward Albany, sixteen miles away. Part of these perished of cold, and some got to Albany, with the loss of limbs from frost. A number were carried into a midwinter captivity.

Other assaults.

The French party now had equal hardships to get back. Seizing forty of the best horses they could get, they hastened away; but they suffered from hunger, and they were overtaken when almost at home by a party of Mohawks, and fifteen or more were killed. Another of Frontenac's parties of French and Indians, after struggling for three months through the snow, attacked Salmon Falls, in New Hampshire, at daybreak. The people made a brave resistance; but, after thirty of them had been killed, the rest surrendered and were taken to Canada. Another party attacked a post on Casco Bay, in Maine, where the city of Portland now stands, captured and destroyed it.

Colonies combine
for defense.

These successes of the French, so far from disheartening the English, only roused them to revenge. They now felt the evil of their division into separate colo-

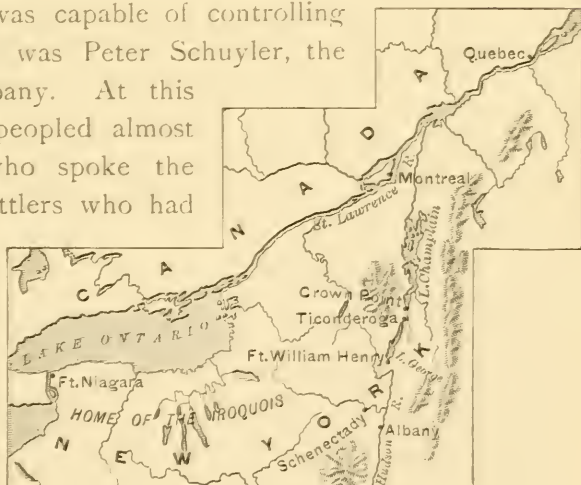
nies, and in 1690 a congress of commissioners from several colonies met in New York to consider the best means of carrying on the war with some sort of united action. This congress, which foreshadowed the ultimate union of the English colonies, planned an invasion of Canada.

In accordance with this plan, Sir William Phips took Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. Two expeditions were sent against Quebec: the one from New York and Connecticut was ordered to go by Lake Champlain; the other, from Boston, under Sir William Phips, was sent in a fleet of thirty-four ships. The expedition by way of Lake Champlain fell a victim to dissensions among its officers and to discontent of the Indian allies, and retired without even embarking on the lake. Phips reached Quebec, but found it impregnable to his force.

Attempt to take
Quebec.

The management of a horde of undisciplined Indians is always a matter of delicacy and difficulty, demanding a peculiar tact. Among the English there was one man at this time who was capable of controlling the Iroquois. This was Peter Schuyler, the first mayor of Albany. At this time Albany was peopled almost wholly by those who spoke the Dutch language, settlers who had come from Holland while New York was a Dutch province, or their descendants. Colonel Peter Schuyler was of this

Peter Schuyler



Dutch race. He had been born in Albany while it was a Dutch post and a center of the Indian trade, and he had grown up with a knowledge of the manners and speech of the neighboring Iroquois and a familiar acquaintance with the savages themselves. The Indians had great confidence in "Quider," as they pronounced his name.

Schuyler invades
Canada.

In 1691 Schuyler led a party of white men and Mohawks against Canada. He attacked and got the better of a body of French and Indians of double the number of his own; and when after this success he found himself intercepted by a strong body of the enemy, who lay between his soldiers and their canoes, he called to his men that there was nothing for it but to fight or die there. After a struggle of an hour he broke the French line, got into their rear, and, turning on them again, at length defeated them, regained his canoes, and returned home.

Colonel Schuy-
ler's expedition
against the
French.

Schuyler did what he could to prevent Indian cruelties. He was shocked to find that his hungry Mohawks were eating the French they had killed. The whole contest was made up of barbarities and miseries without result, until peace between France and England, in 1697, brought a little welcome repose to the colonists of both nations after eight years of war and massacre.

In 1702 began what was known as "Queen Anne's War." In this contest England fought against Spain as well as France. South Carolina was involved in a war with the Spaniards and Indians of Florida, while the Northern colonies were struggling against Canada. The Gov-



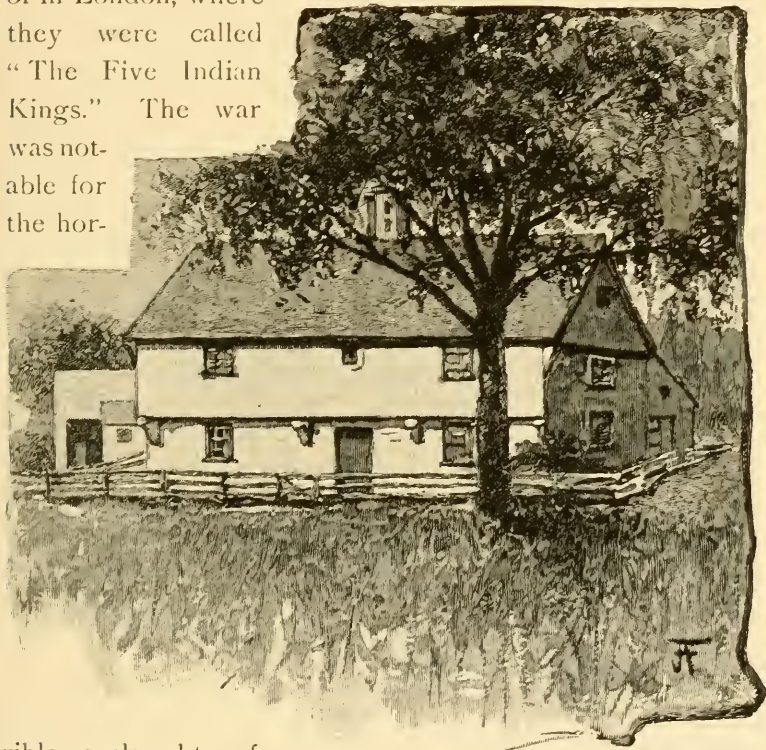
QUEEN
ANNE.

ernor of South Carolina made successful inroads upon the Florida Indians, but he could not capture St. Augustine. Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, was again taken from the French in 1710, but the attempts made to take Quebec were once more a failure.

In 1709 Peter Schuyler took five Iroquois chiefs to England as ambassadors in order to keep the Iroquois faithful to the English. These chiefs were made much of in London, where they were called "The Five Indian Kings." The war was notable for the hor-

"Queen Anne's War."

"The Five Indian Kings" in London. Indian wars.



OLD HOUSE
AT DEERFIELD.

rible onslaughts of the Canada Indians on some of the towns of the Northern frontier. Deerfield, in western Massachusetts, was destroyed in 1704, and more than a hundred of its in-



GATEWAY AT
ST. AUGUSTINE.

habitants
carried into
captivity. The war lasted
about eleven years. A treaty
was made in 1713, and there was a
long peace between France and Eng-
land. But the intrigues of both powers with the sav-
ages continued, and even in times of peace with France
New England had many bloody engagements with the
Indians of Maine, who were under the influence of the
French.

In 1740, during a war with Spain, General Oglethorpe, the founder of Georgia, tried to conquer Florida, but the fortifications of St. Augustine were too strong for him. Two years later the Spaniards invaded Georgia, but Oglethorpe manœuvred his little force with so much skill as to lead the Spanish into ambushes and defeat them at every point.

In 1744 the war between England and France, known as "King George's War," began. At that time many French privateers were sent out to plunder New England ships. These privateers came out of Louisbourg, a French stronghold on Cape Breton Island. Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, sent against this place four thousand untrained New England militia. They were commanded by a merchant, and their officers did not know even the meaning of military terms. But they made up in courage and enthusiasm for their inexperience. The Americans had few cannon, but their favorite amusement had always been target-shooting, and the deadly skill with which they used their muskets made it almost impossible for the French to work their guns. The excitement over this contest put a stop to almost all kinds of business in the Eastern colonies, and when at length the powerful fortress surrendered to a little army of farmers and mechanics, there was no end of joy in New England. This was the chief victory of the war, and it gave the American troops confidence in themselves. At the peace, concluded in 1748, England returned Louisbourg to the French in exchange for



GEORGIA AND
FLORIDA AS
THEY WERE IN
OGLETHORPE'S
TIME.

"King George's
War" and the
first capture of
Louisbourg

advantages elsewhere. This was a bitter disappointment to the New-Englanders, who called the day of its surrender a "black day, to be forever blotted out of New England calendars."

CHAPTER XXII.

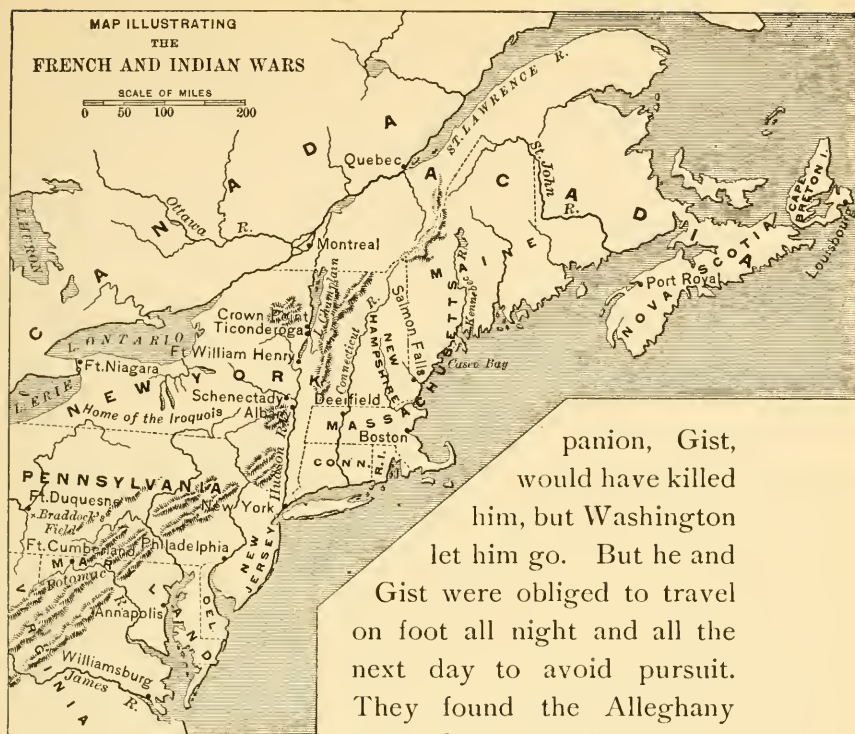
BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT, AND THE EXPULSION OF THE ACADIANS.

Washington sent to protest against the French forts.

THE French made use of the years that intervened between the peace of 1748 and the outbreak of hostilities in 1754 to draw a line of posts along the Ohio and near to the Alleghany Mountains, intending to confine the English to the country east of the Alleghanies, and to secure to themselves the whole of the great interior valley. This was especially exasperating to Virginia, which claimed the western country. George Washington, then a young man of twenty-one, who had already spent much time on the frontier as a surveyor, was sent into the wilderness by the Governor of Virginia as an ambassador to urge the French to depart peaceably. This errand the athletic and cool-headed young man accomplished, in spite of great hardships and dangers.

Washington's embassy.

The French officers were very much impressed by Washington, and showed him many courtesies, though they tried to persuade his Indians to leave him. On his return a French Indian tried to kill him by firing at him, and then pretending that his gun had gone off accidentally. The Indian was caught, and Washington's com-



panion, Gist, would have killed him, but Washington let him go. But he and Gist were obliged to travel on foot all night and all the next day to avoid pursuit. They found the Alleghany River filled with floating ice.

The two travelers built a raft and endeavored by this means to ferry themselves across, but the ice caught the pole with which Washington was pushing and threw him into the river. He caught hold of the raft and drew himself out. He and Gist were obliged to pass the night on an island, and Gist was badly frost-bitten. Washington got back to Williamsburg in January, and the story of his adventures produced a great excitement in the little capital, and became the chief topic of talk in the plantation-houses of Virginia.

The governor was like the man in the fable who tried soft words at first, but threw stones when nothing

Washington tries to expel the French.

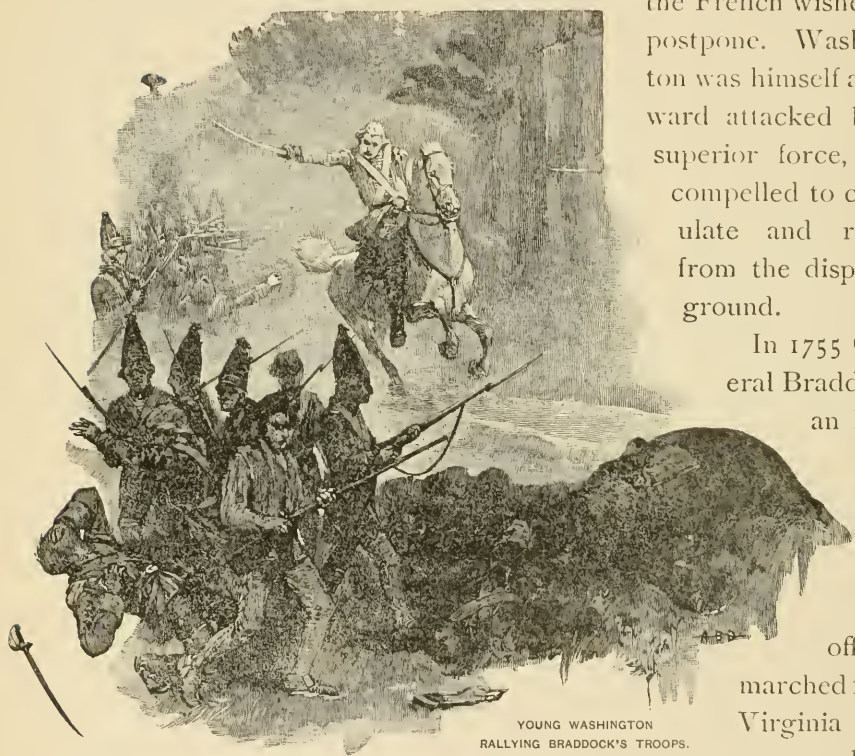
else would drive the thievish boys from his apple-tree. The year after Washington's embassy—that is, in 1754—Washington was sent as a major at the head of some troops to dislodge the French, who had built a post at the head of the Ohio, where Pittsburg now stands. This they called Fort Duquesne. Washington found the French too strong for his force, but, by surprising and defeating a skulking party of them, he brought on a great war between France and England, which

the French wished to postpone. Washington was himself afterward attacked by a superior force, and compelled to capitulate and retire from the disputed ground.

In 1755 General Braddock, an English

officer, marched from Virginia in command of

an army of English regulars and colonial militia, to drive the French from Fort Duquesne. Braddock was brave



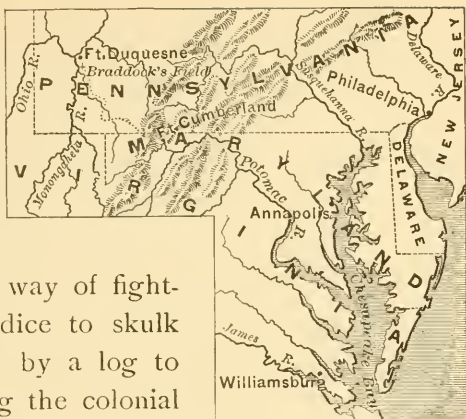
YOUNG WASHINGTON
RALLYING BRADDOCK'S TROOPS.

Braddock's expedition.

and honest, but harsh and brutal in manners. He could not understand the nature of a war in the woods. Like other English officers of the time, he despised the American militia and their half-Indian way of fighting. He thought it cowardice to skulk behind a tree or to crouch by a log to fire. He insisted on training the colonial militia to fight in European fashion, though his whole march was through a forest where it was impossible to form a battalion.

When only eight miles from Fort Duquesne, the French and Indians attacked Braddock's army. The scarlet coats and solid ranks of the soldiers, who advanced waving their hats and crying "God save the king!" made a good target for Indian marksmen, and the English were mowed down by the deadly fire that came from trees and gullies where no enemy was to be seen. The British soldiers, though brave enough, were unused to such warfare, and unable to do anything to repel the unseen foe. After standing huddled together for three hours, they broke and fled. The Virginians, whom Braddock had despised, had stood their ground for a while, fighting behind trees like the Indians; but Braddock, esteeming this cowardly, ordered them to "come out in the open field like Englishmen," and even struck some of them with the back of his sword.

General Braddock exposed himself fearlessly. He had four horses killed under him, and was on the fifth



THE DOTTED LINE SHOWS BRADDOCK'S MARCH FROM FORT CUMBERLAND, ON THE POTOMAC, TOWARD FORT DUQUESNE.

Braddock attacked.

Braddock defeated and killed.

when he was mortally wounded. George Washington, who was the only officer on Braddock's staff not killed or wounded, behaved with admirable courage. He had two horses shot under him, and four bullets pierced his clothes. Nearly all the officers of Braddock's army were killed or wounded, and the soldiers who escaped the slaughter fled back to Fort Cumberland in a wild panic.

Expulsion of the
Acadians.

In the same summer with Braddock's defeat came the removal of the Acadians. Acadia was the name of the region now included in the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It had been settled by the French about one hundred years when the English conquered it in 1710, during Queen Anne's War. The people were a very ignorant peasantry, who continued to speak French and to take sides secretly with their own nation in every struggle between the two countries, though they had lived forty-five years under English rule. In this war the hard resolution was taken to scatter the Acadians through the various English colonies. They were seized and put on board vessels and sent away; their houses and barns were burned, and their lands confiscated. Their sufferings have excited pity even to our own times, and have been made the subject of Longfellow's poem of "Evangeline," which is a story of the time:

"When on the falling tide the vessels departed,
Bearing a nation with all its household gods into exile,
Exile without an end, and without an example in story,
Scattered were they like flakes of snow, when the wind
from the northeast
Strikes aslant through the fogs that darken the banks
of Newfoundland."

Some of the Acadians got to Louisiana, some to Canada, and some, after great hardships, made their way back to Acadia; others were scattered in various places.

Almost the whole of this year's operations of the British and colonial troops ended in failure. Sir William Johnson was sent to capture Crown Point, a French fort on Lake Champlain. His raw forces succeeded in beating off the French in the battle of Lake George; but Johnson, who was no soldier, did not even attempt to go farther, and Crown Point was not attacked. General Shirley set out to capture the French fort at Niagara, but he was outgeneraled by the French, and did not reach it.

The statesmen who governed England at this time were very incompetent. The colonies were divided by factions and jealousies, many of the colonial governors were incompetent, and the war

in America was carried on with half-heartedness and stupidity.

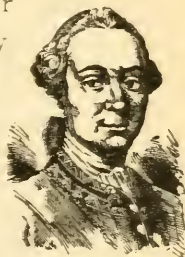
Lord Loudon was sent, in 1756, to command the troops in America. He laid siege to Louisbourg in 1757, but failed to take it. For this movement he drew away many of the troops that had protected the New York frontier. Aware of this, the French, under Montcalm, besieged and captured Fort William Henry, at the south end of Lake George. By the terms of capitulation the colonial troops were

Battle of Lake George. Failure of Johnson's and Shirley's expeditions.

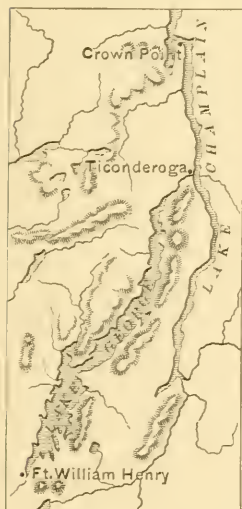


SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON.

Capture of Fort William Henry, and massacre of part of the garrison.



LORD LOUDON.



to be allowed to return home, but after they had surrendered the fort the Indian allies of the French fell on them and killed a great many. Others they seized and carried off, while Montcalm besought them and threatened them in vain. The great disgrace of the American wars in the last century was the use of savage allies by civilized nations.

CHAPTER XXIII.

FALL OF CANADA.



Pitt conducts the war against France with vigor.

IN the midst of this war with France, William Pitt, afterward Earl of Chatham, became Prime Minister of England. He was one of the greatest orators and perhaps the greatest English statesman of his time. His advancement had been retarded by the jealousy which King George II felt of his opposition to all encroachments on liberty. But so great was his popularity that the king felt obliged in 1757 to intrust the government to him. Up to that moment the war had brought England only disgrace and defeat. But Pitt infused his own fiery spirit into every department of the government. From the moment his strong hand was felt, the tide turned in England's favor everywhere. Pitt made great changes in the conduct of the war in America. He was resolved, indeed, to take Canada, and to drive the French out of America, as the only means of winning a lasting peace in that quarter. He chose his commanders with care, and

from the time he came to power the English colonies began to feel some hope of getting rid of the enemy that had so long sent the Indians, like wolves, to destroy the defenseless settlements.

In 1758 the English, under Amherst, again laid siege to Louisbourg, that great fortress which New-Englanders had once captured. After a siege by sea and land, lasting nearly two months, and much hard fighting, the town surrendered.

In September of this same year the French fort, called Frontenac, which stood where the town of Kingston in Canada now stands, and controlled Lake Ontario, was taken by an English expedition.

General Forbes, though so sick with a painful and mortal illness that he had to be carried on a litter, cut a road through the thick forests on the Pennsylvania mountains, marched to the Ohio, and forced the French to abandon Fort Duquesne. The English established a fort here and called the place Pittsburg, in honor of the great prime minister who had turned the current of the war from defeat to victory, and who had become the idol of the people in the American colonies.

The English army in America suffered one considerable de-



AMHERST.

Capture of Louisbourg by Amherst, 1758.

Capture of Fort Frontenac.

General Forbes obliges the French to abandon Fort Duquesne. Pittsburg founded.



ACADIA, PORT ROYAL, AND LOUISBOURG, AND THE ROUTE BY SEA BETWEEN BOSTON AND QUEBEC.

Defeat of the
English at Ticon-
deroga.

lost at Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain. General Abernethy had sailed down Lake George and marched through the woods to attack Montclair, at Ticonderoga. The English and colonial troops tried to carry the French works by assault, but after several repulses they retreated in a panic to their boats, and sailed back to the fort at the south end of Lake George.

Decline of the
French power in
America.

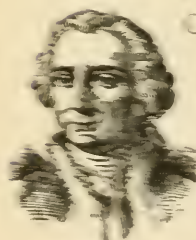
But the English successes in 1758 pushed the French in America far toward ruin. Louisbourg, the great French stronghold from which privateers were sent out, was gone, and by the fall of Fort Duquesne and Fort Frontenac the routes from Canada to Louisiana were cut off. The sea-trade of Canada was destroyed, and the Indians of the interior were no longer willing to come to the support of the French, seeing the English in possession of the main roads into their country.



WOLFE

Wolfe attacks
Quebec.

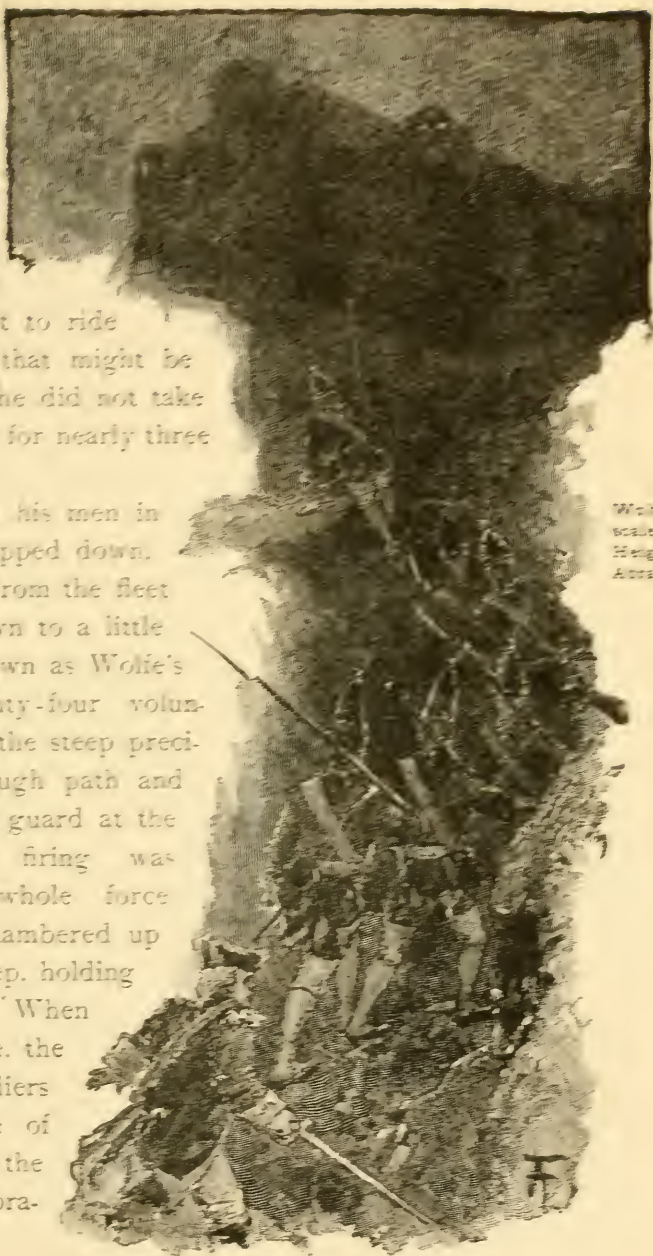
During the siege of Louisbourg Wolfe, a young brigadier-general, had attracted much attention by the energy and daring of his operations. He was sent by Fort to take Quebec, if such a thing were possible. Quebec is on a high, steep cliff overlooking the St. Lawrence where that river is narrow, and the natural strength of the fortress is very great. All through July and August of 1759, Wolfe's army and the English fleet tried in vain to find a weak spot in the defenses of the Canadian stronghold, but the fortress frowned on them from its inaccessible heights. In several attacks made at various points, the English were repelled. As the season of storms was coming on, and the fleet must soon leave, even Wolfe began to despair. But, in spite of sickness and pain, this heroic man roused his army to make one more attempt. Meantime Mont-



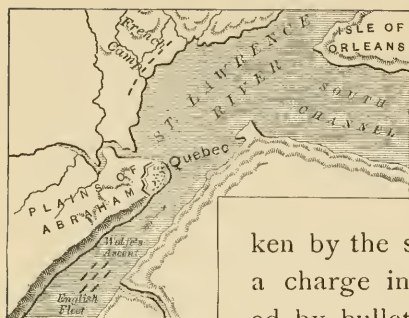
MONTCALM

calm, who commanded the French forces, was extremely vigilant. He kept his horses saddled day and night to ride to any point that might be assailed, and he did not take off his clothes for nearly three months.

Wolfe put his men in boats and dropped down, in the night, from the fleet above the town to a little bay, now known as Wolfe's Cove. Twenty-four volunteers climbed the steep precipice by a rough path and drove off the guard at the top. When firing was heard, the whole force landed and clambered up the rocky steep, holding by bushes. When morning came, the British soldiers were in line of battle on the "Plains of Abra-



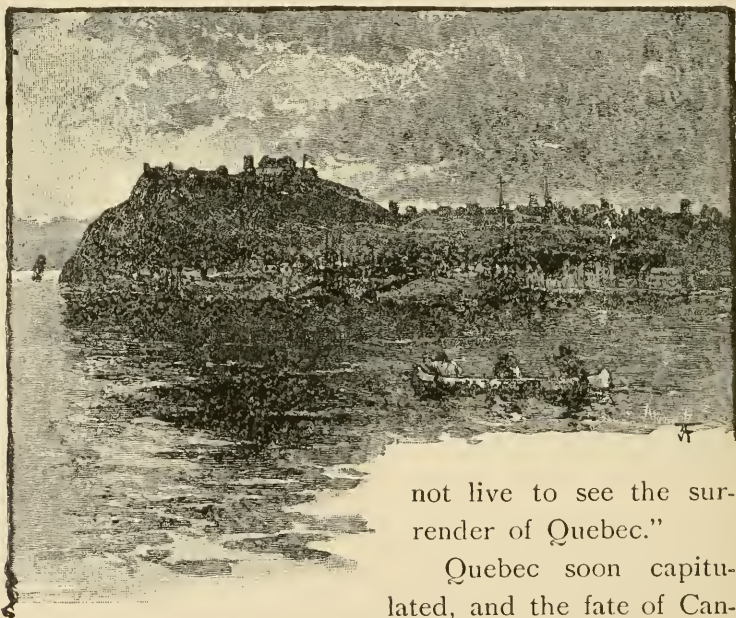
Wolfe
scaler the
Heights of
Abraham.



Defeat of the French on the "Plains of Abraham." Death of Wolfe and Montcalm.

ham," less than a mile from Quebec, where the French must fight or have their supplies cut off.

Montcalm attacked immediately, but his ranks were broken by the steady English fire, and Wolfe led a charge in person. Though twice wounded by bullets, Wolfe kept on until a shot entered his breast, inflicting a mortal wound. When told that the enemy were fleeing everywhere, he said, "Now, God be praised, I die in peace!" Montcalm, who was also mortally wounded, said, "I am happy that I shall



OLD VIEW OF QUEBEC.

Fall of Quebec, 1759. Canada ceded to the English, 1763.

not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

Quebec soon capitulated, and the fate of Canada was sealed. The French attempted to retake the city in vain. The surrender of Montreal, in 1760, com-

pleted the conquest of Canada by the English. By the treaty between England and France, made in 1763, all the French possessions in America east of the Mississippi, except a district around New Orleans, were ceded to England.

The joy in the colonies knew no bounds. The people had seen their shipping cut off by privateers, their property wasted by taxation, their paper money depreciated, and their young men destroyed by almost continual war. The frontiers had been desolated by the Indians, under French influence, for three quarters of a century. Now they looked forward to peace, and the expansion of the English settlements in America into a vast empire.

Rejoicing in the colonies.

CHAPTER XXIV.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COLONIAL WARS WITH THE FRENCH.

THE English and French regulars wore neat uniforms. The French were remarkable a long way off for the white, the English for the red, which predominated in their dress. The drill of regular soldiers was careful, and their discipline severe. They fought with great steadiness, standing up and facing the enemy, and they and their officers held in contempt the skulking way of fighting which prevailed among the colonial troops on both sides.



FRENCH
REGULAR.



FRENCH OFFICER.

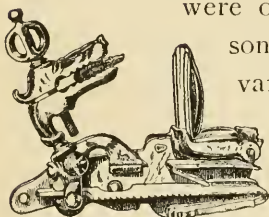
The regular soldiers.

The American troops.



CANADIAN SOLDIER.

British officers and colonial soldiers.



FLINT-LOCK.



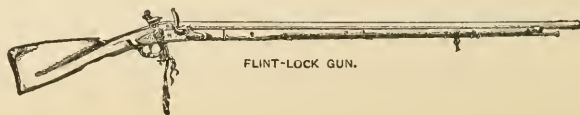
INDIAN MOCCASINS.

The Americans, in both the French and English colonies, had learned to fight in the woods. They loaded their guns lying on the ground, and they fired from behind trees and stumps, now running forward and now retreating and charging again. The regular troops took no definite aim, but fired at the enemy's line, while the colonists were the best marksmen in the world, and the man whom one of them covered with his gun was generally doomed. In the first siege of Louisbourg the victory was achieved by the deadly aim with which colonial musketeers picked off French artillery-men. At the battle of Lake George it was said that the American provincials fought in the morning like good boys, about noon like men, and in the afternoon like demons.

The British officers were generally incapable of getting on well with the American soldiers. They looked with contempt on men who wore little or no uniform, were often tattered, slovenly, and even barefoot, and sometimes carried in the same company guns of the various sorts they had used in hunting. The Americans made a bad show on parade, and refused to fight standing up in close ranks. By the side of the neatly-kept, red-coated British troops, the American militia looked shabby enough.

The British officers holding the king's commission assumed to command American officers of higher rank, and this caused a dislike of the English to spread through the colonies. Pitt ordered that the American officers should take equal rank with the British, and this order gave great satisfaction in America.

The English troops were rather unfit for the work of fighting in the woods. "Our clothes, our arms,



FLINT-LOCK GUN.

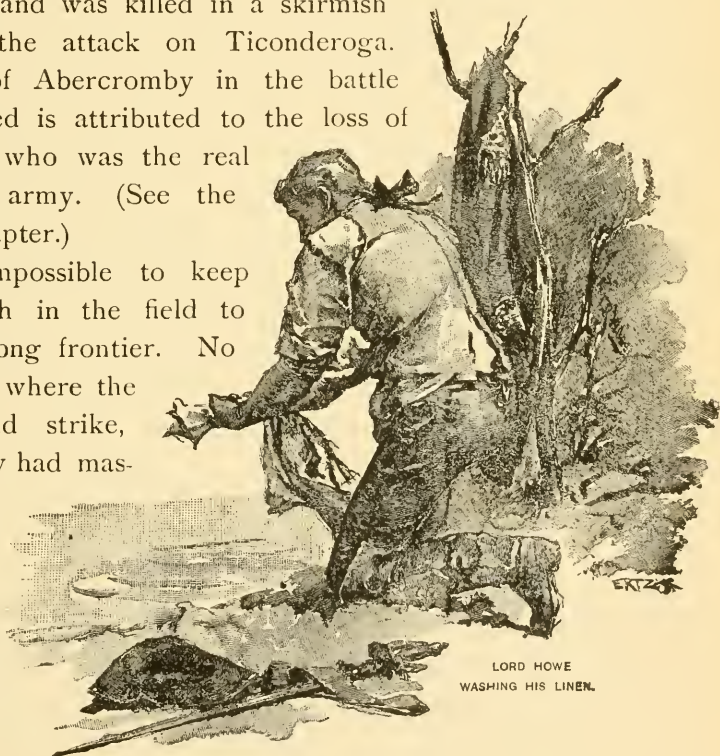
our accoutrements, even our shoes and stockings, are all improper for this country," wrote General Wolfe from America. Lord Howe, who was one of the noblest of men and best of generals, changed the dress of his men to fit them for marching in the wilderness. Hair was worn long in that day, and Lord Howe cut off his own fine head of hair to persuade the men to sacrifice theirs. He reduced the officers' baggage, and dismissed the great company of washerwomen, setting a good example by washing his own linen in the brook. Lord Howe cultivated the friendship of the American officers, and treated the soldiers with great respect. He was second in command to Abercromby, and was killed in a skirmish just before the attack on Ticonderoga. The defeat of Abercromby in the battle which followed is attributed to the loss of Lord Howe, who was the real soul of the army. (See the preceding chapter.)

It was impossible to keep troops enough in the field to protect the long frontier. No one could tell where the Indians would strike, and when they had massacred a family they escaped too swiftly for pursuit. The colonies were

English troops in the woods. Lord Howe's reforms.



LORD HOWE.



LORD HOWE
WASHING HIS LINEN.

**Rewards for
scalps.**

driven to offer rewards for the scalps of Indians as they were accustomed to pay for wolves' heads. One can see how barbarous their feelings were, however, in the offer of smaller rewards for the scalps of Indian women and children.

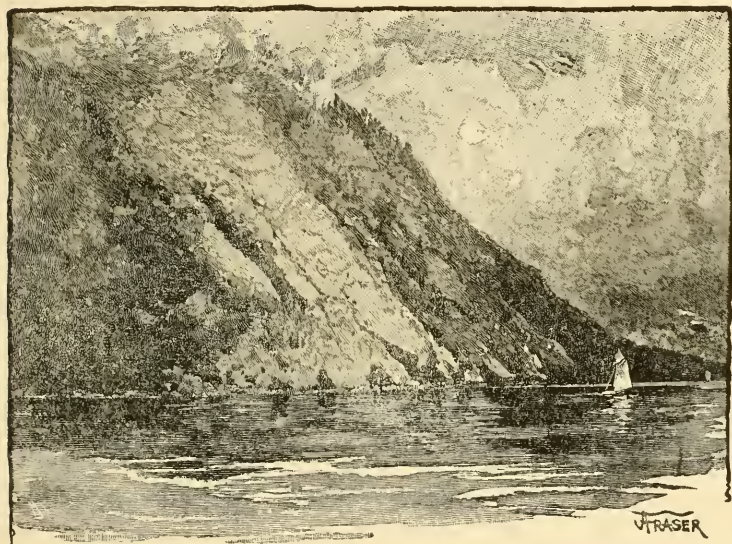
Rangers.

The perils of the frontier led to the formation of companies of rangers, who fought the Indians in their own way. In the South the rangers were mostly mounted men, who scoured the frontier to intercept any companies of Indians which might invade the settlements. Rangers were also employed to assist the armies in the field by capturing stragglers from whom information could be gained, and by traversing the woods to guard against surprise.

Robert Rogers.

One of these rangers, Major Robert Rogers, became very famous for his daring expeditions in the region about Lake George. He had many desperate fights with the French. He and his men journeyed on skates or snow-shoes in winter, and in light whale-boats or afoot in summer. His main objects were to capture prisoners for information and to annoy the enemy. Once, with fifty men, he carried his light whale-boats six miles over a mountain-gorge, from near the middle of Lake George to the waters of Lake Champlain, and then rowed with muffled oars under the French fort at Ticonderoga, so close as to hear the sentry give the watchword, and then passed the fort at Crown Point in the same way. He captured and sunk two sloops laden with provisions, hid his boats, and got back afoot to Lake George. Afterward he returned and reconnoitred Lake Champlain in his boats, captured some prisoners, and again hid his boats. This time the French found the boats, and sent out scouts

to find some water-passage by which they could have come into Lake Champlain, not suspecting that they could have been carried over. Rogers, when unable to capture any stragglers, once determined to get information by securing a sentinel on duty. With five men he walked coolly up to a sentinel near the French fort. When challenged, he answered in French. Then, when he had got near the soldier, and the latter demanded, in



ROGERS'S SLIDE,
LAKE GEORGE.

amazement, "Who are you?" he answered, "Rogers," and took him prisoner. There is a tradition that, in escaping from the Indians, he once threw his packs down a steep rock to the ice on Lake George, and then turned round on his snow-shoes and walked away with his snow-shoes reversed. The Indians, seeing the tracks, believed that two men had approached and slid down the frightful slope. The place is still known as "Rogers's Slide."

Evil influences of
the French wars.

In many ways the French wars tended to corrupt the people of the colonies. A race of traders secretly sold arms to the Indians that were butchering their own people. Another set of men, some of whom were connected with the government, sold provisions to the French. Very many embarked in privateering—that is, they fitted out ships to capture and plunder the merchant-ships of France. This was only a kind of lawful piracy. Many of the soldiers who returned from the war had learned habits of idleness and dissipation.

Sorrows of the
frontier.

The sorrows inflicted on both the French and English colonists were more than can be imagined. The frontier people lived in continual fear of sudden death by the tomahawk, or slow death by torture. Yet their courage grew with their danger.

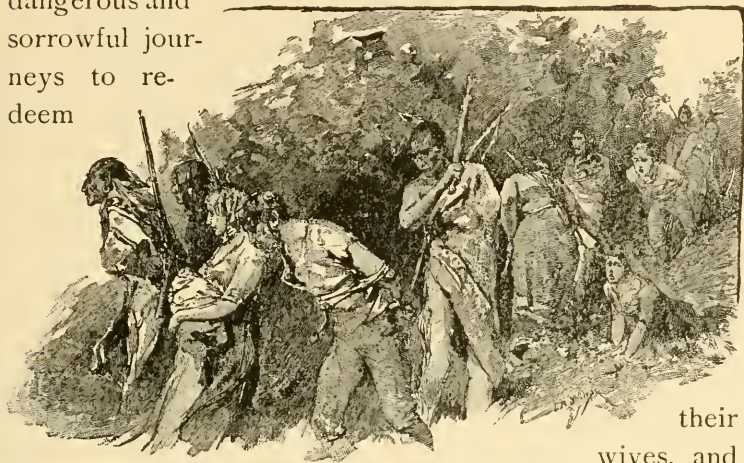
“Lovewell's
fight.”

Of all the engagements on the Northern frontier none excited so much interest as that of Captain Lovewell's thirty-four men with a party of forty-two Indians who ambushed the white men near the present site of Fryeburg in Maine. The fight lasted from ten in the morning till night, when the Indians retreated. One half of Lovewell's party was killed, including the captain, who fell at the first fire, and the young chaplain Frye, who was left wounded and dying in the woods. This melancholy struggle was celebrated in a rude ballad that became “the most beloved song of all New England.” Its narrative of blood and desperation suited the gloomy taste of the time, and it was long chanted by colonial firesides.

Captivity in Can-
ada and among
the Indians.

In 1689 captives taken in Maine were carried to Canada and sold there. From that time forward innumerable people captured on the frontier by the Indians

were sold into Canada, enduring horrible sufferings in their forced journeys through the woods. Many of these were ransomed by their friends. Husbands made dangerous and sorrowful journeys to redeem



WHITE CAPTIVES
DRIVEN INTO CANADA
BY INDIANS.

their wives, and parents went in search of their children. Great compassion was excited in New England for the captives, and collections were frequently made for their redemption. Sometimes captive children were reclaimed who had been educated in French, and had quite forgotten the language and the religion of their parents.

One of the first of many thousands of captives carried to Canada was a little girl named Sarah Gerrish. An Indian girl once tried to drown her by pushing her off a precipice into the river, but she saved herself by catching hold of the bushes. Once she was so weary that she overslept, and awoke to find herself alone in the woods and covered with snow. She followed the tracks of the Indians until she overtook them. Again, the Indians built a great fire, and told her that she was to be burned, but she threw her arms around her Indian master's neck

Incidents of
captivity.

and begged him to save her. She was sold to the French in Canada, and kindly treated by them until she was returned. In the fall of 1677 two men, White and Jennings, set out from the Connecticut River for Canada, to redeem their wives and children carried off by Indians. Without guides they paddled through Lake Champlain and reached Canada. After seven months' absence they brought back about twenty captives in all. The people sent horses to meet them at Albany and bring them into Hatfield, where they were received with the greatest joy. One woman, when she got her children together, after captivity, found one of her sons, a lad of eleven, an Indian in habits, and not able to speak any but the Indian language; while a daughter of fifteen, who had been educated in a Canadian convent, spoke nothing but French. One Pennsylvanian got home just as the sale of his property at auction had been completed, his neighbors having supposed him dead. James Smith, having endured six years of captivity among the Indians, came home a few days after his sweetheart had married another man.

Curious results
of captivity.

The Canadians were generally kind to the captives that fell into their hands, and some of the prisoners were very sorry to return. Many of the captives remained among the savages: one Indian village contained a hundred white people carried away in childhood. These had forgotten how to speak English. Some of the Indian tribes doubled their numbers in the last French war by adopting white children. Three thousand men, women, and children, were carried into captivity from Pennsylvania and the provinces south of it in the year 1756.

The colonies did not immediately have peace. The Pontiac's war. Indians of the Western country hated the English, and the occupation of the old French forts by small English garrisons excited their jealousy. Under the lead of Pontiac, an Ottawa chief, a great conspiracy was formed in 1763, the year of the peace. Pontiac had arranged a treaty-meeting with Major Gladwyn, the officer in Fort Detroit. He and other chiefs had filed off the barrels of their guns so as to carry them hidden under their blankets. They intended, by a treacherous surprise during the meeting in the council-room of the fort, to cut off the whole garrison. But an Indian girl revealed the plot to the commander, and the chiefs found the fort bristling with bayonets, and gave over their assault. But, a few days later, they laid siege to the fort, which, however, succeeded in holding out for five months, when the Indians abandoned the siege. Many of the smaller frontier forts were taken and the inmates massacred. Fort Pitt, where Pittsburg now stands, was attacked, but succeeded in holding out against the savages. The settlers on the frontier suffered horrible inroads from the savages. It became necessary to march forces into the Indian country. General Bouquet, with five hundred men, defeated a large body of Indians in a desperate two days' battle at Bushy Run, in Pennsylvania, in 1763. "Pontiac's War," as it was called, was brought to a close in 1764, and the frontiers had a brief rest. But already there were seen the beginnings of that great quarrel of the Americans with the mother-country which brought on the bitter struggle of the Revolutionary War, with new horrors from fresh Indian wars.



REDOUBT AT PITTSBURG, BUILT
BY BOUQUET IN 1764.

CHAPTER XXV.

HOW THE COLONIES WERE GOVERNED.

Three forms of government in the colonies.

THE close of the French war made way for the Revolution. But, before we consider the events which led to the separation of the colonies from England, it will be best to ask, How were the colonies governed at the close of the French wars? There were three forms of government in America—"royal," "charter," and "proprietary."

Colonies under royal governments.

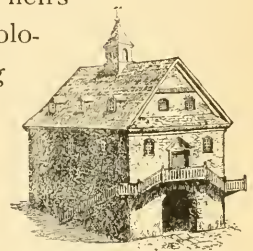
The oldest colony, Virginia, after the Virginia Company was dissolved, was under what was called a royal government, because the king appointed the governor, and approved or disapproved of the laws that were passed. New York had been granted to the Duke of York as a proprietary government, but when that duke became king, as James II, it became a royal, or king's province. New Jersey became a royal colony after the king bought the right of the proprietors, and East and West Jersey were united. The two Carolinas were proprietary governments at first, but in 1729 the king bought out the proprietary rights, and they became royal governments. Georgia was first settled under a body of twenty-one trustees, but in 1752 these trustees surrendered the government to the king. In 1679 New Hampshire was separated from Massachusetts, and became a royal colony. So that, after 1752, there were seven colonies under royal governments, namely, Virginia, New York, New Jersey, North and South Carolina, Georgia, and New Hampshire.

Three colonies — Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island—were under charter governments; that is, they were for the most part governed by their own people, according to charters granted by the king. Massachusetts, after it lost its first charter, had a governor appointed by the king, but the power remained mostly in the hands of the Legislature. Maine was attached to Massachusetts.

Colonies under
charter govern-
ments.

Maryland had been given to Lord Baltimore, Pennsylvania to William Penn. Baltimore and Penn were called "proprietors," or "proprietaries." The heirs of these first proprietors exercised in these two colonies power somewhat similar to those of the king in the royal colonies. These were called proprietary governments. Delaware had been ceded to Penn by the Duke of York, and, though it had a separate Legislature, it was under the same governor as Pennsylvania. There were, therefore, at the close of the French wars, three proprietary governments—Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware.

Colonies under
proprietary gov-
ernments.



COLONIAL COURT-HOUSE,
PHILADELPHIA. BUILT 1707.

Each of the thirteen colonies had a legislative body. These were divided into two houses. There was a Lower House, or Assembly, elected by the people. The members of the Upper House, or Council, were generally appointed by the king in the royal colonies, and by the proprietary in the proprietary colonies. In the charter colonies governors and members of the Council were elected by the Assembly.

Colonial Legis-
latures.

In order to pass a law both houses of the Legislature must vote for it and the governor must agree to it. We have kept the same rule. Our State and

How laws were
passed in the
colonies.

national laws are made in this way now. The body we call the Senate takes the place occupied by the governor's Council in the colonies. But in our time the people elect the governors and both houses of the Legislature. In nearly all of the colonies the people had no voice in choosing the governor or the Upper House of the Legislature. The people could not, therefore, make laws which were not agreeable to the king or the proprietary. There was, consequently, almost a continual quarrel between the governors, acting under instructions from England, and the representatives of the people.

Character of
colonial gov-
ernors.

As the people of the colonies had no influence in the selection of their governors, they were generally unworthy men. At first they were often the relatives of court favorites; in later days they were frequently selected to please some influential man who could control the vote of a representative in Parliament. Some of them were ignorant and tyrannical, some were dissipated, and others were greedy money-getters. Lord Cornbury, who governed New York, was a cousin of Queen Anne. He squandered the resources of the colony, imprisoned whom he pleased, and rendered himself contemptible by occasionally masquerading in women's clothes. Andros, Governor of New York and New England, was a tyrant unmitigated in most of his acts. Many of the governors gave themselves up to securing a fortune by any means in their power, and some succeeded. Sir William Berkeley in Virginia arrogated to himself one third of the gross returns of the Indian trade; Governor Fletcher in New York sold licenses to pirates to live unmolested in his province; and Governor Eden, of

North Carolina, was believed to be a partner in Blackbeard's spoils. To increase their profits the governors would sometimes overthrow land-titles already granted, thus obliging the owner to pay them large fees for new grants. Royal governors generally acted as judges, sitting in the highest court, and thus they held two thirds of the authority of their colony. As they had a power of appointment to and removal from many offices, they could do pretty much as they pleased. The only check on them was the right of the Assembly to fix the salary of a governor from year to year. All the governors were not bad ; some, like Spotswood in Virginia, Robert Johnston in South Carolina, and Dongan, Bellomont, and Burnet in New York, were conspicuous for public spirit. But the exasperation which the colonists felt toward most of their governors was a source of alienation from the mother-country.

All laws regulating the trade between the colonies and with other countries were made by the English Parliament. The colonies were obliged, often much against their will, to admit negro slaves, brought in by English merchants. They were forced to send nearly all their leading products to England for sale. They were not allowed to buy any European goods, except in England, and no foreign ships were allowed to enter a port in this country. Laws were made to discourage people in the colonies from making and trading in such things as were made in England. There were English laws against the manufacture of iron-ware and woolen goods by the Americans. The colonists had many furs, and could make hats very cheaply, but no hatter was allowed to send hats from one colony to another; he

Commercial laws
made by the
English Parlia-
ment.



A HATTER'S SHOP
IN OLD TIMES.

Custom-houses
and smuggling.

could even be punished for loading his hats on a horse to carry them to another colony.

Custom-houses were established by law in all the principal ports of the colonies, and the duties were collected for the king. The object of these duties was not so much the revenue derived from them, as the effect of duties on foreign goods in compelling the colonists to buy chiefly products of English manufacture, and in enabling the officers to exclude goods not brought from England. But the colonists evaded

these restrictive laws in every way possible, and there was a great deal of smuggling along the whole coast. Goods were secretly landed in the lonesome creeks on Long Island or in little bays to the southward. Much smuggling was done by bribing the customs collectors, and sometimes the governors as well. Chests of tea were often packed in the middle of hogsheads of sugar, and thus brought in from the West India islands instead of from England, as required by act of Parliament. Tobacco, which could only be lawfully shipped to English ports, was put aboard Dutch ships at sea from American vessels, or from little boats that ran out of creeks along the James River or the Chesapeake. The people thus learned to disregard the laws of the mother-country, and by the unwise acts of Parliament the minds of the colonists were prepared for resistance to English authority.

CHAPTER XXVI.

EARLY STRUGGLES FOR LIBERTY IN THE COLONIES.

THE colonies were settled at a time when the English people were trying to establish the principles of liberty in their own government. Many of the colonists were driven to this country by acts of tyranny. The settlers in America brought with them the English love of liberty. They were always ready to assert their right to "the liberties of Englishmen." Then, too, the hardy, independent life of pioneer settlers tended to cherish the passion for freedom.

Love of liberty
in the colonists

Free government was first established in America by the Virginia charter of 1618, as we have seen in a previous chapter. The king, in dissolving the Virginia Company, struck a blow at the liberty of the colony, but the people strove hard to maintain their freedom. When, in 1624, the clerk of the Virginia Council betrayed their secrets to the king's commissioners, the Virginia Assembly sent him to the pillory, and had part of his ears cut off, to the great disgust of King James. When Sir John Harvey was Governor of Virginia, he opposed the people, and the Council deposed him in 1635, and sent him to England. King Charles I was offended at their presumption in deposing a royal governor, and he sent him back again as governor. But the people succeeded in having him removed in 1639.

Early struggles
for liberty in
Virginia.

Sir William Berkeley, the royal Governor of Virginia, opposed the people, and in 1676 refused to allow them to make war on the Indians, who were ravaging the front-

Bacon's rebel-
lion.

iers. This he did, lest the large profits he was making out of the fur-trade should be reduced. The people of the frontier put themselves under the lead of a brilliant



THE PILLORY.
AS USED IN AMERICA.

young man, Nathaniel Bacon by name. Bacon belonged to a family prominent in the county of Suffolk, in England. He was educated in the law at Cambridge. His habits, like those of other young gentlemen of the time, had been extravagant, and he exceeded the allowance made him by his father. About 1673 he went to Virginia, where he had a cousin, also named Nathaniel Bacon, who was rich and childless, and who wished to make the younger Nathaniel heir to his fortune, if he could have persuaded him not to embrace the popular cause. But the generous heart of the younger Bacon was touched with the wrongs of the people, and, though he had been appointed a member of the governor's Council, he yielded to the request of the people and became their

leader. He showed excellent ability, and he was idolized by the people, who stood guard day and night over his house lest he should be assassinated by order of the governor.

Bacon forced the government to give him a commission, and he got the Legislature to pass some good laws, that were much needed. Then he marched against the Indians and drove them back, to the great relief of the suffering people of the frontier. He was a good Indian fighter, but, like most men of that time, he showed no mercy to the savages, whose torture of their prisoners had awakened the most violent resentment. In fighting the Indians he caused his men to stand so close to their fort that they could fire through the port-holes, and yet, by standing at one side, escape the fire of the Indians.

Bacon against
the Indians.

When Bacon got back from the Indian war and had dismissed a part of his men, he found that Berkeley had proclaimed him a rebel, and taken measures to have him arrested. With a little handful of men, he marched swiftly on Jamestown, which was garrisoned by a force five times as strong. As he passed along the road the people brought out food to refresh his soldiers, and the women cried after him, "General, if you need help, send for us!" He promptly threw up a trench on the narrow neck of land that connected Jamestown with the mainland, and, after a week of siege, he took it and burned it to the ground.

Siege and de-
struction of
Jamestown.

Governor Berkeley fled to the Eastern Shore of Chesapeake Bay, and the people of Virginia, except the few on the eastern side of the bay, took an oath to support Bacon, hailing him as a deliverer.

Virginia under
Bacon.

Bacon's death.

But Bacon was worn out by the cares and exposures of the Indian war and the Jamestown siege, and he soon died. His body was secretly buried by his friends, who sunk it in the waters of the river, in order that his enemies might not dig up his bones. The only document to be found that appears to have been written by Bacon's own hand is signed "Nathaniel Bacon, General, by consent of the people"—so that he was something of a republican, though he lived a hundred years before the Revolution. With all the vigor of his measures, he was ever lenient to his foes. When he was dead, his enemies testified that he was "not bloody-minded." His military and political devices and the celerity of his actions and decisions show that he was a man of genius. Indeed, "Nat Bacon," as he was called, is the most romantic and heroic figure, take him all in all, of the colonial period of our history.

Berkeley's revenge.

After Bacon's death there was no one his equal to protect the cause of the people. Sir William Berkeley succeeded after a while in reducing Bacon's followers, and in confiscating for his own use much of their property. Twenty-three leading men he put to death. For this severity the king recalled him in disgrace, and the old despot died at last of chagrin.

Attempts to dissolve the Massachusetts charter, in the reign of Charles I.

Soon after Massachusetts had been settled, under the patent or charter of the Massachusetts Company (see pages 40, 41), an attempt was made to destroy that charter by the same kind of a lawsuit that had been used to overthrow the charter of the Virginia Company. But the Massachusetts charter had been carried to America, and, when the judges in England sent orders to have it brought back to be examined, the rulers of

the colony made excuses until the troubles in England caused the matter to be laid aside.

In the reign of Charles II, proceedings were again taken against the Massachusetts charter, and in 1686 it was dissolved. King James II, who had by this time come to the throne, soon after appointed Sir Edmund Andros Governor of New York and New England. He tried in every way to overthrow the liberties of the colonies. The people of New England were exasperated to the highest pitch, and when they heard that the Prince of Orange had landed in England, to overthrow James II, they rose against Andros and imprisoned him, establishing a government of their own. This was in 1689.

Massachusetts
rebels against
Governor Andros.



GOVERNOR ANDROS.

During the time that Andros was governor of all New England, he had tried to carry off the Connecticut charter. But it is said that, when the charter was brought in and laid on the table, the lights were suddenly blown out, and when they were lighted the charter was gone. It had been taken away and hidden in the hollow of an oak-tree. This tree stood for nearly a hundred and seventy years after, and was always venerated as "the Charter Oak."

The charter of
Connecticut hid-
den in an oak.

Andros was supreme Governor of New York as well as of New England. In New York there was also great dissatisfaction with his government, and, when the common people heard that Andros had been put in prison in Boston, they rose against his lieutenant, and set up Captain Jacob Leisler for governor. Leisler, who governed the colony for more than two years, was a plain merchant, with no knowledge of government. He was bitterly opposed by the rich men of the colony. Though

Leisler's rebel-
lion in New York

a man of patriotism, he was imprudent, and, after the arrival of a royal governor, his enemies succeeded in having him executed for treason.

Rebellion against
the proprietors in
South Carolina.

The proprietors of Carolina governed their two colonies in a selfish and greedy spirit, and were, besides, ignorant of the wants and character of their people. The North Carolinians were often in insurrection against the governors sent to rule them. In 1719 the people of South Carolina overthrew the oppressive government of the lords-proprietors and put themselves under the authority of the king, who bought out all the rights of the proprietors ten years later.

Legislative re-
sistance to colo-
nial governors.

The spirit of liberty was in all the colonies. The governors appointed in England made continual efforts to encroach on the freedom of the people. These governors, as the direct representatives of the sovereign, were able to engross a great deal of power in their own hands, and to enrich themselves and their creatures out of the resources of the colonies. They were held in check, as we have said, by the disposition of the colonial Assemblies to settle the amount of their salaries from year to year. English statesmen greatly desired to have permanent salaries fixed for the governors, so that they might not be dependent on anybody but the king. On this point there were long-continued quarrels between the royal governors and the Assemblies; but, for the most part, the colonies held the purse-strings in their own hands, in order by this means to guard their liberties.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION.

FROM the preceding chapter it is evident that long before the Revolution there was much dissatisfaction in the colonies. Many of the governors sent over were tyrannical and dishonest. The Americans did not like the transportation of criminals, nor the action of the British government in annulling the laws made to keep out slaves. They were also much annoyed by English laws, which prevented them from sending away woollen goods, hats, and iron-wares of their own make, from one colony to another. Most of all, they disliked the "navigation laws," the object of which was to compel them to do most of their trading with England.

General causes
of discontent.

The enforcement of these unpopular laws was in the hands of custom-house officers. The collectors of customs in Boston, in 1761, asked the courts for "writs of assistance," which would give them the right to search any house, at any time, for the purpose of finding smuggled goods. This produced a great excitement, and made the navigation laws still more unpopular. The trial which took place about these writs was a kind of beginning of the quarrel which brought on the Revolution fourteen years afterward.

The writs of
assistance.

But England and the colonies, while always carrying on a family quarrel, had little thought of separating. Separation would probably have come when the colonies grew too large to be dependent, but this might at least have been postponed for two or three gen

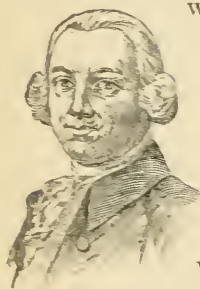
The Stamp Act.

erations if the men who ruled England had not tried to tax the American colonies. Parliament passed, in 1765, what was known as "The Stamp Act." This law required that all bills, notes, leases, and many other such documents used in the colonies, should be written on stamped paper, which should be sold by officers at such prices as should bring a revenue to the English government. All newspapers were required to be printed on stamped paper.

Violent opposition to the Stamp Act.

The American people quickly saw that, if the British Parliament could pass such an act, they could tax America in any other way. The cry was raised in all the colonies, "No taxation without representation!" Patrick Henry, a brilliant speaker, took the lead in the agitation in Virginia, and James Otis, an eloquent Boston lawyer, was the principal orator in Massachusetts.

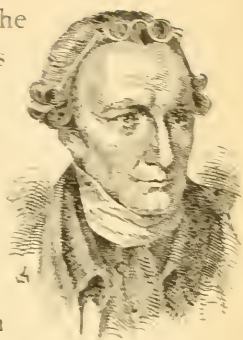
Career of James Otis



JAMES OTIS.

Otis was born at what is now West Barnstable, on Cape Cod, in 1725. After studying in his native town he went to Harvard College, where he was graduated when he was eighteen years old. But, wishing to lay a good foundation, he spent a year and a half more in general studies before he entered on the study of the law. He practiced at first at Plymouth and afterward in Boston. He rose to the highest rank in his profession. He was an honorable man, and would never take unfair advantages of an opponent. When the customs officers applied for "writs of assistance," which would enable them to search any house at any time, it became the duty of Otis, as advocate-general, to argue in favor of these writs. But he gave up his lucrative office and took the side of liberty. He made a great speech, five hours long, against

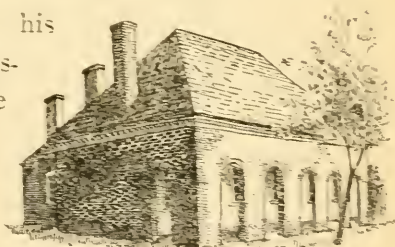
the writs, and this speech is considered by some the starting-point of the Revolution. It was in this speech that he first raised the popular cry against "taxation without representation," which was the watchword of the Revolution. In the great struggle over the Stamp Act, and in the debates that followed, to 1769, he was the brilliant leader. When the bitterness of the controversy with England was at its height he became involved in an affray with several officers of the customs, and was seriously injured. Soon after this his mind, wearied by the exciting controversies in which he was engaged, became gradually deranged, and he retired from public affairs. In 1783 he was killed by a stroke of lightning.



PATRICK HENRY.

Patrick Henry was born in Hanover County, Virginia, in 1736. He was chiefly educated in a school taught by his father. He read law and began the practice of his profession. In 1763 he was engaged to plead in defense of the people against a suit of the parish clergy. It was known as "The Parsons' Cause." Before a court, in which his own father was the presiding magistrate, he pleaded the case of the people with such extraordinary eloquence and vehemence that the clergymen rose and left the room, and Henry's father wept tears of triumph, while the people carried the young lawyer about on their shoulders. Elected to the Virginia Legislature, he immediately took the lead against the Stamp Act and became famous. It

Rise of Patrick Henry.

HANOVER COURT-HOUSE, VIRGINIA,
WHERE PATRICK HENRY SPOKE AGAINST THE
PARSONS' CAUSE.

was in his speech on the Stamp Act that he uttered the famous words, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third—" As Henry reached this point his opponents cried "Treason! treason!" But the orator finished by saying, "may profit by their example," and added, "if that be treason, make the most of it!" When pleading for the organization of the Virginia militia, before the Revolutionary War had begun, he closed with these memorable words: "Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!" Henry was several times Governor of Virginia. He died in 1799.

General oppo-
sition to the
Stamp Act.

Under the lead of Otis and Henry and other speakers and writers of great influence, the new movement against the Stamp Act became a tide hard to resist. The rivalries and jealousies between the various colonies died out in the new patriotic feeling, and the excitement ran like a flame of fire from New Hampshire to Georgia. There was everywhere a call for union among the colonies. A congress of delegates from nine of the colonies met in New York in October, 1765. It is known as "The Stamp-Act Congress." But the people were too much excited to stop at orderly measures. In colony after colony violent mobs compelled the stamp-officers to resign. In some places the people pulled down or rifled the houses of British officials. The authority of the king and Parliament was defied. Not one man in all the colonies dared to sell a piece of stamped paper.

Though America had almost no manufactures, the merchants pledged themselves to import no English goods until the Stamp Act was repealed. As black goods came from England, the people resolved to wear no black at funerals, and they began to dress in homespun. They resolved, also, to eat no more mutton, in order to increase their own production of wool. English merchants, whose trade was hurt by these measures, now joined in the clamor for the repeal of the Stamp Act, and it was repealed in 1766, to the great joy of the colonies.

The Americans agree not to import English goods. Repeal of the Stamp Act.

But Parliament passed another bill at the same time, asserting its right to tax the colonies. New ways of raising a revenue in America, without the consent of the people, were tried. Troops were quartered in the colonies, and the people were required to pay the expense. This the colonies refused to do. In 1770 a collision took place between British troops and some inhabitants of Boston. Three of the people were killed. This was called "The Boston Massacre." It excited deep feeling in all the colonies, and Samuel Adams, the leader of the Boston town-meeting, with five thousand citizens at his back, compelled the governor to withdraw the troops from the city.

Other acts of oppression.

Samuel Adams was a great Revolutionary character, ranking not a whit below Henry or Otis in his influence on the early stages of the movement. Adams was born in Boston in 1722. He was graduated at Harvard College at twenty years of age. He was already devoted to liberty, and his oration when he received the degree of master of arts defended the right of the people to resist the supreme magistrate, "if the



SAMUEL ADAMS.

Services of Samuel Adams.

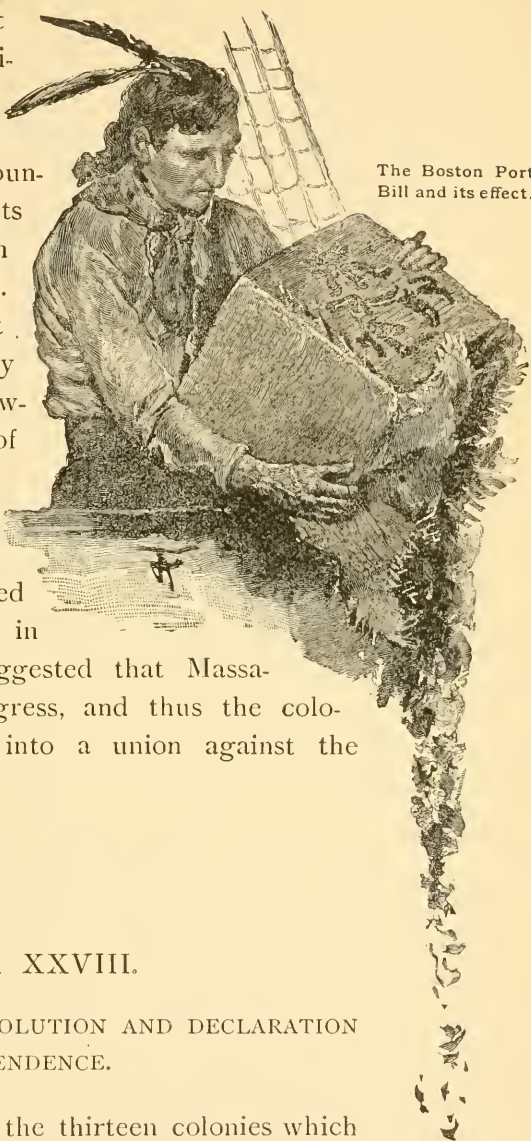
commonwealth can not otherwise be preserved." He was one of the first to oppose taxation by Parliament, and he early became the chief organizer and leader of the revolutionary movement in Massachusetts. He is said to have proposed the Congress of 1774. When General Gage offered pardon to the Americans, he excepted Samuel Adams and John Hancock. Adams was a member of the Continental Congress and a principal advocate of American independence. He lived a pure and incorruptible life, and, though always poor, the king could not buy him from the path of virtue. He died in 1803.

Opposition to the
tax on tea.

Yielding in part to the storm in America, the Parliament took the tax off of nearly everything except tea. By releasing a part of the English duty on tea sent to America, the government arranged it so that the Americans, after paying a tax in America, would have their tea cheaper than before. The Americans were not contending for a little money, but for a principle, and they refused to receive the tea. They began to drink tea made of sassafras-roots, sage, raspberry-leaves, yaupon, and other American plants. The English government sent over consignments of tea to the principal ports. At Boston a company of fifty men, disguised as Mohawk Indians, boarded the ships and emptied three hundred and forty-two chests of tea into the sea. This is known as "The Boston Tea-Party." In New York the people emptied a private consignment of tea into the water, and the ships which were sent by the government they compelled to go back to England. Philadelphia also sent the tea-ships home again. In Charleston the tea was landed, but purposely stored in damp cellars, where it rotted;

and at Annapolis, a ship that had paid the duty on a private consignment of tea was burned in the harbor.

The English Parliament punished Boston by closing its port until the tea thrown overboard should be paid for. This act produced a great deal of distress in Boston, by ruining its business and throwing its working-people out of employment. But it excited the sympathy of the other colonies, who sent aid to its people and who resolved to support it. A committee in New York immediately suggested that Massachusetts should call a congress, and thus the colonies were finally brought into a union against the mother-country.



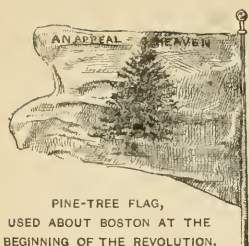
The Boston Port Bill and its effect.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE OUTBREAK OF THE REVOLUTION AND DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

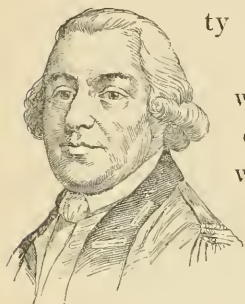
THOUGH the Congress of the thirteen colonies which met in Philadelphia in 1774 had no authority to make laws, the people chose to obey its recommendations and

The Congress of 1774.



PINE-TREE FLAG,
USED ABOUT BOSTON AT THE
BEGINNING OF THE REVOLUTION.

British troops
sent from Boston
to Concord.



GENERAL GAGE.

Paul Revere's
ride.

The "minute-
men."

to disobey the governors sent to them from England. The Congress petitioned the king and Parliament to restore their rights. But meanwhile the colonies organized the militia, and collected military stores, that they might be ready to fight for their liberties.

General Gage was in command of the British forces at Boston. He resolved to check the rebellious spirit of the people. He sent out troops from Boston before midnight on April 18, 1775, to destroy some military stores at Concord, about twenty miles away.

Paul Revere, an engraver and an active patriot, was sent to tell Samuel Adams and John Hancock, who were at Lexington, that the British were coming. He waited at Charlestown until he saw a light hung in a church-steeple, which was a signal to him that the British troops were moving. Then he rode to Lexington, warning the people of their danger:

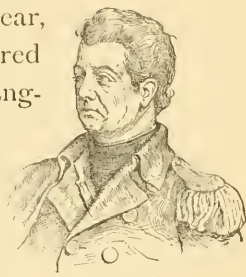
"So through the night rode Paul Revere,
So through the night went his cry of alarm,
A cry of defiance and not of fear,
A voice in the darkness, a knock at the door,
And a word that shall echo for evermore!"

The poet Longfellow wrote a famous poem on Paul Revere's ride, from which the lines above are extracted.

The Americans had formed companies ready to be called out on the minute; these were called "minute-men." At Lexington the British troops fired on the minute-men and killed eight of them. At Concord the soldiers destroyed the stores.

But the minute-men were now pouring in from the whole country, and the English troops beat a hasty retreat back through Lexington. The Americans, swarming like maddened bees, attacked them in the rear, in front, and on both sides. The minute-men fired from behind trees, rocks, and stone fences. The English retreated in a state of exhaustion, with a loss in killed and wounded of nearly three hundred men; the Americans lost about eighty-five. Messengers on horseback carried the news of the "battle of Lexington," as it was called, all over New England and into the Middle and Southern colonies. The people now knew that the war so long threatened had begun.

The battle of Lexington and the beginning of the Revolution.



ETHAN ALLEN.

Soon after the battle of Lexington, Ethan Allen, at the

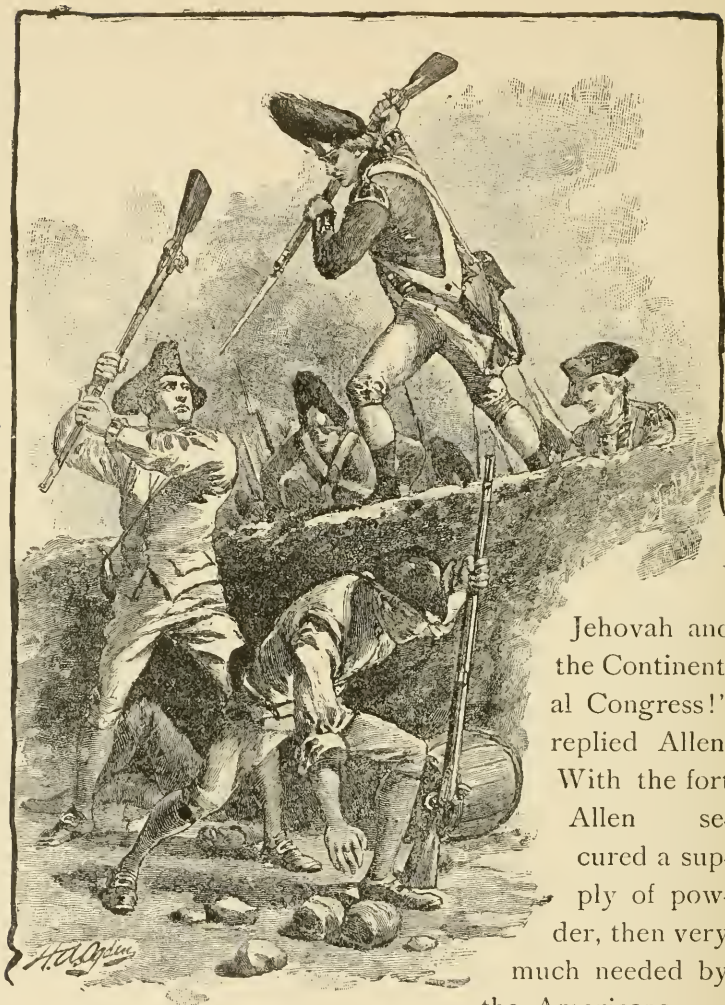
Capture of Ticonderoga.



RUINS OF TICONDEROGA.

head of eighty backwoodsmen from Vermont, known as "Green Mountain Boys," made a sudden descent on Fort Ticonderoga, near the south end of Lake Champlain. Entering the fort in the night, he

found the commander in bed, and summoned him to surrender. "In whose name?" demanded the officer. "In the name of the great

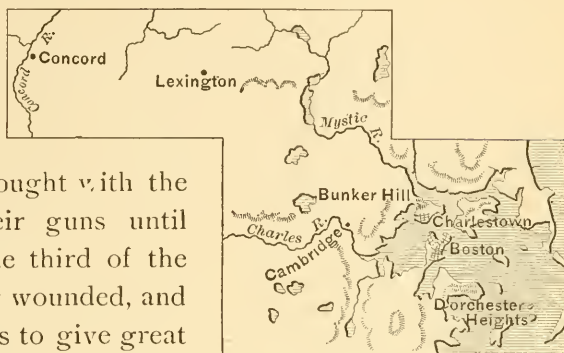


Jehovah and the Continental Congress!" replied Allen. With the fort Allen secured a supply of powder, then very much needed by the Americans.

The battle of Bunker Hill.

After the battle of Lexington, an irregular army of New-Englanders blockaded the English troops in Boston. A detachment sent to encamp on Bunker Hill threw up breastworks on Breed's Hill instead. Here, on June 17th, the British attacked them with nearly

double their force, and, though the Americans were farmers who had never fought, and had almost nothing but fowling-pieces to fight with, they twice repulsed the British regulars with great slaughter, and, when their ammunition was exhausted, fought with the butts and barrels of their guns until compelled to retreat. One third of the British force was killed or wounded, and the result of the battle was to give great confidence to the Americans, who have always regarded the battle of Bunker Hill, as it was called, more as a victory than a defeat.

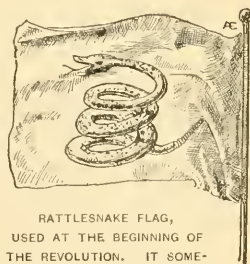


Meantime it fell to the Continental Congress, in session in Philadelphia, to elect a commander-in-chief for the new army. Colonel George Washington, of Virginia, who had gained distinction for zeal, courage, and prudence in the French and Indian wars, was chosen to this responsible place.

Washington
made command-
er-in-chief.

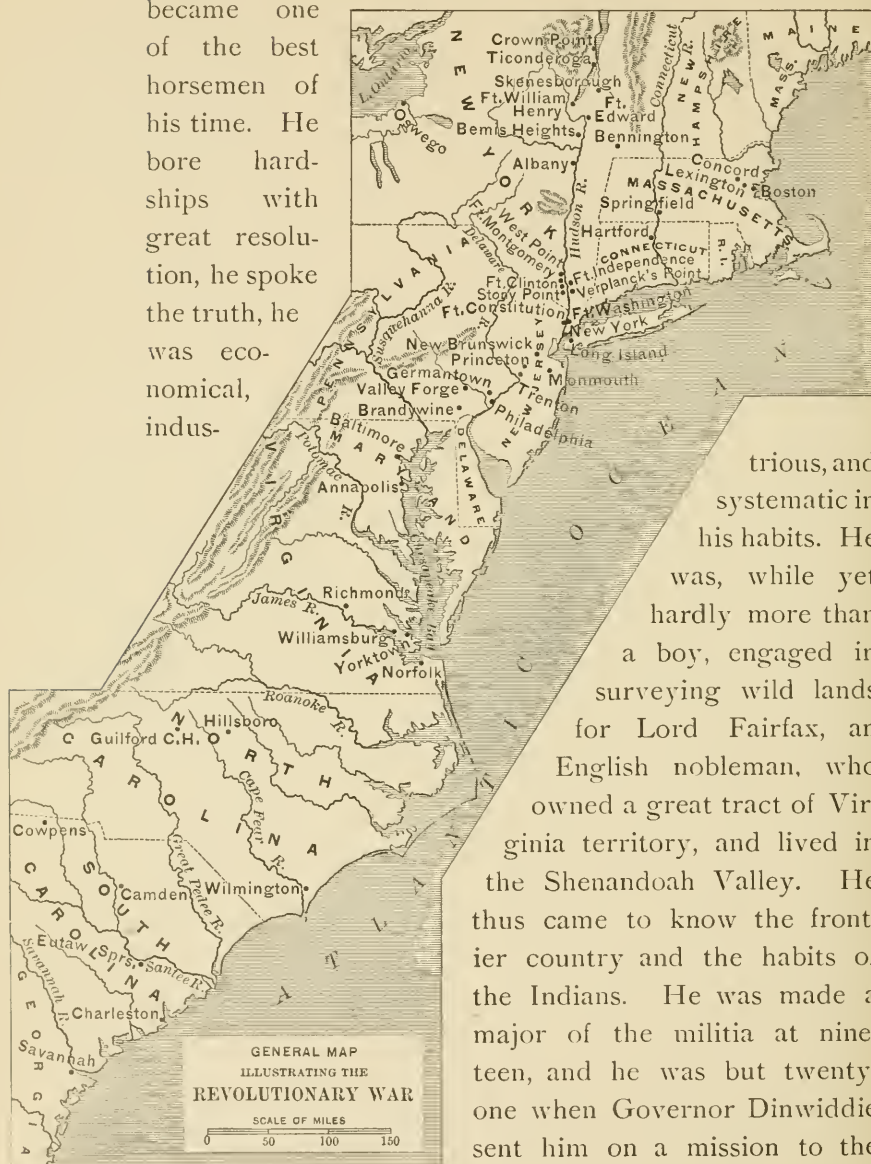
George Washington was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732. His father was a planter, with a large landed property; his mother was a woman of great force of character, but, like many ladies of that day, she had little education. Washington got such learning as the poor country schools of the time afforded, but he made the most of it. His exercise-books are models of method and neatness. Besides the common branches of reading, writing, and arithmetic, he learned surveying and book-keeping. He was a lad of great

Washington.



RATTLESNAKE FLAG,
USED AT THE BEGINNING OF
THE REVOLUTION. IT SOME-
TIMES BORE FOR MOTTO,
"DON'T TREAD ON ME!"

strength, and took the lead in all athletic sports, and he became one of the best horsemen of his time. He bore hardships with great resolution, he spoke the truth, he was economical, industrious, and



trious, and systematic in his habits. He was, while yet hardly more than a boy, engaged in surveying wild lands for Lord Fairfax, an English nobleman, who owned a great tract of Virginia territory, and lived in the Shenandoah Valley. He thus came to know the frontier country and the habits of the Indians. He was made a major of the militia at nineteen, and he was but twenty-one when Governor Dinwiddie sent him on a mission to the

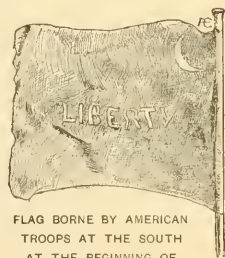
French posts on the Ohio, as we have told in another chapter. By his prudent conduct in Braddock's and Forbes's expeditions, and in the defense of the Virginia frontier, he won the confidence of the American people. He was a member of the Continental Congress of 1774. He was not a brilliant man, but even in 1774 Patrick Henry pronounced him, for "solid information and sound judgment, unquestionably the greatest man" on the floor of the Continental Congress.

In accepting a place at the head of the "Continental Army," as it was called, Washington declined all pay except his expenses. He set out for Cambridge, Massachusetts, where he took command on July 3, 1775. He brought his irregular army to a tolerable state of organization, and closely besieged the British in Boston until March of the next year, 1776, when he sent a strong force to occupy and fortify Dorchester Heights, which commanded the harbor and the town. This compelled the English to withdraw their troops from Boston to Halifax, in Nova Scotia.

The English
evacuate Boston

Up to this time the Americans had been fighting for their liberties as British subjects. Few dreamed that the war would end in a separation from the mother-country. But now the people were everywhere becoming weaned from attachment to England. The colonies, one after another, formed constitutions independent of England, or took steps looking toward independence. On the fourth day of July, 1776, the Continental Congress adopted the "Declaration of Independence." This act was a formal separation of the united colonies from England, whose king was no more to be king in the thirteen colonies.

Independence
declared.



FLAG BORNE BY AMERICAN
TROOPS AT THE SOUTH
AT THE BEGINNING OF
THE REVOLUTION.

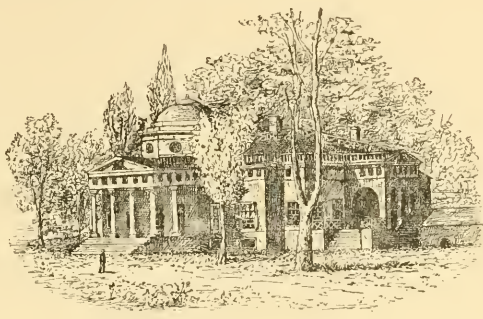
The Declaration
of Independence.

The Declaration says: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." The Declaration of Independence gives an account of the various acts of tyranny which the colonies had suffered under the government of George III, and then says: "We therefore, the representatives of the United States of America in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these united colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do." This dignified and eloquent paper closes with these solemn words: "And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."

Jefferson.

This immortal paper, perhaps the most famous state paper in the world, was written by Thomas Jefferson, who was born near Charlottesville, Virginia, in 1743. His father was a noted land-surveyor, and one of the authors of a map of Virginia, and he left an ample fortune.

Thomas was an eager student. He was graduated at William and Mary College, and was soon recognized as perhaps the most accomplished general scholar in the colonies. He was an excellent mathematician, and knew Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian. There was almost no knowledge that he was not eager to ac-



MONTICELLO : HOME OF JEFFERSON.

quire. He was not gifted as an orator, but with his eloquent pen he rendered great services to the cause of liberty in America. He used his best endeavor to have slavery and the slave-trade abolished. He took the lead in the repeal of the colonial laws that gave to the oldest son the largest share of the father's property. He was also the leader in separating church and state, and giving to the people religious freedom. To him we owe the change of our money from pounds, shillings, and pence to a simple decimal system of dollars, dimes, and cents. To him, also, was due at a later period the purchase from France of the territory west of the Mississippi. Jefferson's mind was one of the boldest and most original of the time.

But though Jefferson wrote the Declaration, the chief John Adams advocate of the independence of the colonies from the earliest period had probably been John Adams, who was a forcible speaker. Adams was one of the committee which reported Jefferson's draft of the Declaration to

Congress. Both Adams and Jefferson came to the presidency of the republic they had helped to found, and by a curious coincidence they both died on the same day, and that day was the Fourth of July, 1826, just fifty years after the signing of this Declaration of Independence.



GEORGE III.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE BATTLE OF TRENTON, AND THE CAPTURE OF BURGOTNE'S ARMY.

THE people received the Declaration with joy. A single year of war had destroyed their attachment to England, and they now earnestly repudiated the sovereign whose health they had but lately drunk at all festivities, and for whose welfare they had until

DESTROYING THE STATUE OF GEORGE III AT THE BOWLING GREEN, IN NEW YORK CITY.

recently prayed in all their churches. Pictures of the king were destroyed; his coat-of-arms was torn down from public buildings and thrown into patriotic bonfires. The leaden statue of George III, which stood in Bowling Green, in New York city, was run into bullets.

But the joy of the Americans was soon turned into anxiety. About the time of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, General Howe landed a large body of English troops on Staten Island, near New York, and a few days later his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, came with re-enforcements.

The battle of Long Island was fought near Brooklyn, on the 27th of August, 1776. In this battle the Americans were defeated, and Washington withdrew

his troops from Brooklyn, and left the whole of Long Island in the hands of the British. The Americans were not strong enough to hold New York, and it was soon evacuated. Fort Washington, above New York, with two thousand Americans, was captured by the British, who soon crossed the Hudson. Washington was obliged to retreat, step by step, across New Jersey into Pennsylvania, with the



English following close on his heels, the British advance-guard sometimes entering a place as the American rear-guard quitted it.

When the news came to Philadelphia that Washington had abandoned New Jersey and crossed the Delaware, there was the greatest alarm. Congress, then

Joy of the people at the news of the Declaration of Independence.

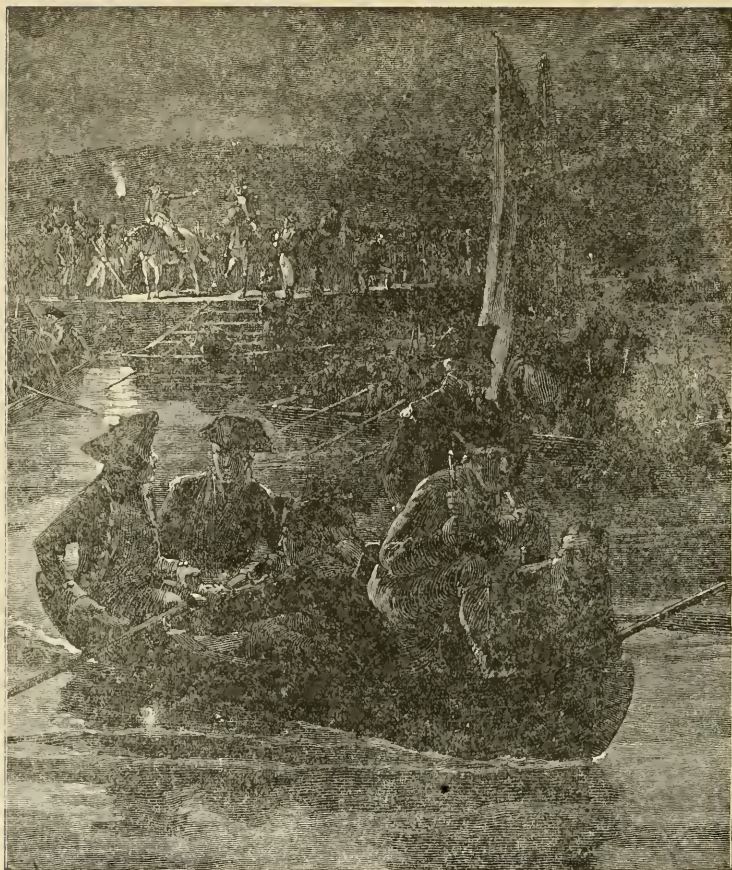
Arrival of an English army near New York.



ADMIRAL LORD HOWE.

The battle of Long Island, and the evacuation of New York by the Americans.

Alarm of the Americans at Washington's retreat.



THE RETREAT
FROM LONG ISLAND

sitting in Philadelphia, adjourned to Baltimore. Many of the people of Philadelphia fled in terror by every road or by such boats as could be had. The army of Washington, thinly clad, was dwindling by sickness, and the time of enlistment of many of the men had almost expired. It was necessary to strike a blow that would hearten the people, for the American cause was on the verge of ruin.

The British government, finding that Englishmen were not eager to fight against those whom they esteemed their countrymen in America, had hired a body of troops from one of the German princes. These soldiers were called Hessians, because most of them came from that part of Germany known as Hesse-Cassel. Like all mercenary troops in Europe at that time, these Hessians were in the habit of plundering and oppressing any people that fell into their power, and their outrages on the inhabitants of New Jersey did much to turn wavering Americans to the side of the Revolution.

About twelve hundred of these hireling troops were stationed in Trenton, New Jersey. On the night of

Christmas, Washington crossed the Delaware in open boats at a point above Trenton. It took all night to effect the crossing on account of ice in the river, and it was eight o'clock before the Americans reached



Trenton. After a sharp battle of three quarters of an hour the Hessians surrendered, and Washington soon after prudently recrossed the Delaware. This success was a flash of light in the darkness, and the joy of the colonists knew no bounds. The prisoners were marched through the streets of Philadelphia, and one of the Hessian standards was hung up in the hall of Congress.

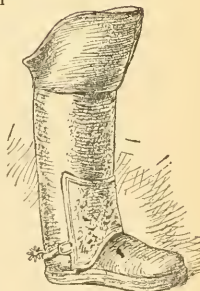
Washington soon crossed the Delaware and re-occupied Trenton. Lord Cornwallis marched from

The Hessians.



HESSIAN TROOPER.

The capture of Trenton.



HESSIAN TROOPER'S BOOT.

Battle of Princeton.

Princeton with a strong force, and on the 2d of January, 1777, attacked the Americans east of that town, and drove them back, fighting step by step. The Delaware was full of running ice, and if Washington had been beaten he could not have retreated. It was night by the time Cornwallis had driven the Americans into

Trenton, and he waited for morning to strike a decisive blow that was to have annihilated the main army of the Revolution, and perhaps put an end to the war. But Washington resolved on a bold move. He threw up intrenchments in the face of the enemy as though to defend the place, but at midnight the fires were replenished and the American army slipped away. By marching around Cornwallis, Washington got in his rear, and

attacked the troops remaining in Princeton, winning the battle before Cornwallis could come up. This success compelled the English to evacuate a large part of New Jersey, and put new life into the American cause.

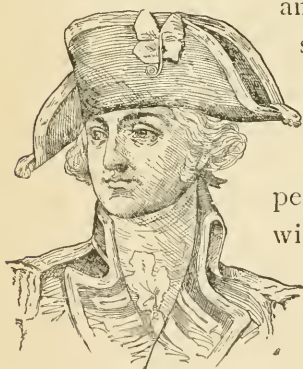
The battle of Princeton was fought on the 3d of January, 1777. In this year a strong force of British and Hessians was dispatched to Canada, to descend from there by the old and often-traveled water-route through Lake Champlain and Lake George and the Hudson River. This army, under General Burgoyne, was expected to reach Albany and to form a junction with the British troops about New York. The effect of this would have been to cut the colonies into two parts.

Burgoyne compelled General St. Clair to evacuate Ticonderoga, and captured the artil-

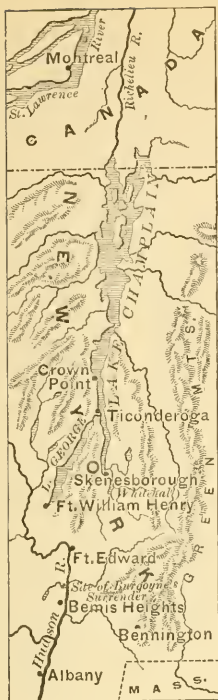


AMERICAN FLAG,
ADOPTED IN 1777.

Burgoyne's expedition.



GENERAL BURGoyNE.



lery and all the stores which St. Clair was trying to move. He then went to Skenesborough, now Whitehall, at the south end of Lake Champlain. At length he reached the Hudson at Fort Edward, having gained complete control of Lake Champlain and Lake George.

Fall of
Ticonderoga.

But this was the end of Burgoyne's successes. An expedition sent against Fort Stanwix, near the present village of Rome, in New York, was foiled in its purpose. The militia, led by General Herkimer, fought the severe battle of Oriskany for the relief of the besieged fort. Herkimer, mortally wounded, sat by a tree to give orders and encourage his troops. With the aid of a sally

Relief of Fort
Stanwix.

from the fort the field was held. Arnold now marched to the relief of the fort, and he sent forward spies, who gave exaggerated accounts of the strength of his troops, and so frightened the British away.

From Fort Edward, Burgoyne sent out a force of his hired German troops into what is now Vermont, to capture stores and horses. But the militia of western New England, who, like almost all men in a new country, were accustomed to the use of fire-arms from childhood, gathered under the lead of General Stark, and at the battle of Bennington utterly defeated the detachment sent out by Burgoyne.



HESSIAN MADE PRISONER
BY MILITIAMAN.

Defeat and sur-
render of Bur-
goyne.



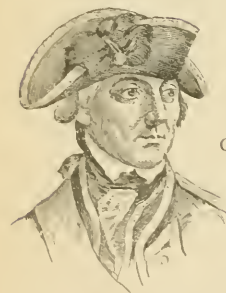
GENERAL GATES.

The whole Northern country was up now. The ranks of the army under General Gates, which opposed the march of Burgoyne, were quickly filled by militia pouring in from New York and New England. In a hard-fought battle at Bemis Heights the Americans won a decisive victory; Burgoyne was soon hemmed in on every side by the increasing American force. He tried in vain to get back to the lakes. His retreat was cut off in every direction, and on the 16th of October he surrendered his whole army. This victory delivered the American cause from the greatest peril, and brought joy without measure to the people.

CHAPTER XXX.

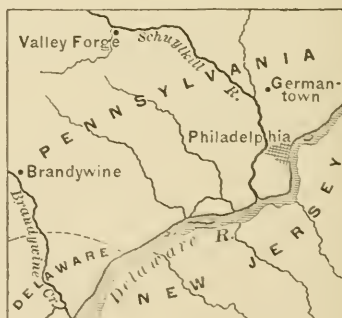
THE DARK PERIOD OF THE REVOLUTION.

The battle of
the Brandywine,
Sept. 11, 1777.



GENERAL SIR WILLIAM HOWE.

THE overthrow of Burgoyne relieved the American cause of one great danger, but it was sorely beset in other quarters. General Howe had taken his army around by sea, and landed at the head of Chesapeake Bay, in order to capture Philadelphia, which was then the seat of Congress. Washington's army was inferior to the British, and he retired behind



the Brandywine River, where, on the 11th of September, 1777, was fought the battle of the Brandywine. The Americans were forced to retreat, and the British entered Philadelphia.

On the 4th of October Washington attacked the British at Germantown, near Philadelphia, but, after a stubborn fight, he was again defeated.

Battle of Germantown, Oct. 4, 1777.

The winter of 1777-'78 was the darkest season of the Revolution. Washington went into winter-quarters at Valley Forge. Many of the soldiers were

Winter-quarters at Valley Forge, 1777-'78.

without shoes, and in their marches over frozen ground they left blood in their tracks. Some of the poor fellows sat up by the fires at night, for want of blankets to keep them warm.



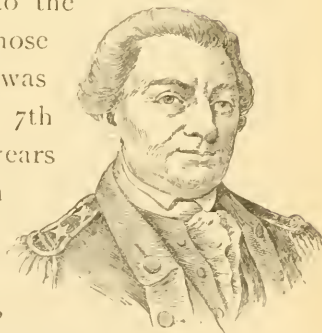
BARON STEUBEN.

The war of the colonies against England had excited much sympathy in Europe. Many foreign officers had come over to assist the Americans.

Arrival of foreign officers.

Some of these were mere adventurers, but others were men of ability and generous spirit. Count Pulaski, Baron Steuben, and Baron De Kalb were excellent officers.

But no other foreign officer rendered to the American cause services so important as those of the young Marquis de La Fayette, who was born of an illustrious French family on the 7th of September, 1757. He was but nineteen years old, with every prospect which great wealth and family influence could give, when he embraced the cause of liberty in America. Against the command of the King of France, he freighted a ship with materials of war at his own



DE KALB.

La Fayette.

expense, and landed in America in 1777, to offer his services as a simple volunteer. He quickly won the favor of Congress and the life-long friendship of Washington. He was made major-general, and, though so young, showed ability as a commander. His conduct was always prudent. He was wounded at the Brandywine, and he distinguished himself by a masterly retreat from Barren Hill and fine conduct at the battle of Monmouth. In Virginia, when Cornwallis threatened him with a superior force, and boasted that the "little boy," as he called La Fayette, could not get away from him, the young marquis avoided a battle, and prepared by his skillful movements for the final success at Yorktown. La Fayette was all his life a

lover of liberty and order. He took a brave part in the French Revolution, but refused to go to extremes. He was arrested and imprisoned for years in Austria, in spite of American efforts to relieve him. At the instance of Bonaparte, he was freed in 1797. He visited the United States in 1824, when he was welcomed as the guest of the nation. He made the tour of the country, rejoicing in its prosperity. He was everywhere received

with enthusiasm by those whose fathers he had helped in their hour of distress. Congress voted him \$200,000 and a township of land for his losses and expenses in the Revolution. Though an old man, he took part in the French Revolution of 1830, and remained the devoted friend of human liberty until his death in 1834.

France had from the first taken a lively interest in the fate of America, partly from a jealous dislike of England, partly from the love of liberty that was growing



LA FAYETTE.

The alliance
with France,
1778.

among the French people. The courageous persistence with which Washington attacked Howe's army at Germantown made a strong impression in France, and on the 30th of January, 1778, a treaty of alliance between France and the United States was signed. Intelligence of this treaty was received in America with the greatest joy.



SIR HENRY CLINTON.

The first result of the alliance with France was the recovery of Philadelphia. Sir Henry Clinton, who had succeeded Howe in command of the British forces, was afraid that the French might blockade the Delaware, and thus shut him up in Philadelphia. He therefore retreated across New Jersey to New York, pushed by Washington's army. During this retreat the battle of Monmouth was fought. The Americans gained a partial victory, the English retreating under cover of night.

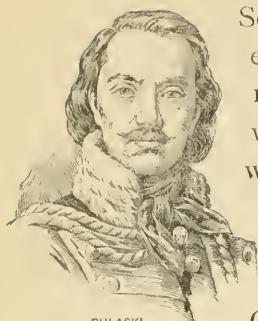
British retreat from Philadelphia, and the battle of Monmouth, June 18, 1778.

One of the most brilliant enterprises of the war was the capture of Stony Point, on the Hudson. General Anthony Wayne led a force of Americans, by defiles in the mountains, to within a mile and a half of the fort on the evening of July 15, 1779. To prevent discovery, all the dogs on the road were killed. At midnight the Americans moved on the fort. The advanced guard carried empty guns with fixed bayonets, and thus faced the fire of the defenders as they rushed over the works and made the British garrison prisoners.

Capture of Stony Point.

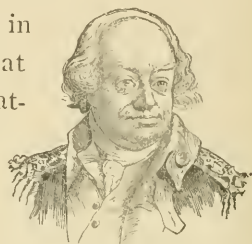
When the war had lasted three or four years, the British government became convinced that it was a most difficult task to subdue the Northern and Middle States. The people could not be subjugated even when the armies were beaten. But as there were more slaves, and as the white population was more scattered, in the

The British conquer Georgia and South Carolina. Americans defeated at the battle of Camden, 1780.



PULASKI.

Southern States, it was supposed that it might be easier to overrun them. At the close of the year 1778 the British captured Savannah, and Georgia was soon subjugated. In the next year an attempt was made by the Americans, assisted by the French fleet, to capture Savannah, but it failed. In this attack Count Pulaski lost his life. After a regular siege, a British fleet and army took Charleston in May, 1780. General Gates, who had commanded the Northern department when Burgoyne surrendered, was put in command of all the American troops at the South. But Gates was utterly beaten, and his whole force routed and dispersed, by the British under Cornwallis, at the battle of Camden, in South Carolina. There was no longer any American army worthy of the name in the whole South.

GENERAL LINCOLN,
WHO DEFENDED CHARLESTON
IN 1780.

Sergeant Jasper.



GENERAL MOULTRIE.

The war in the South developed notable instances of heroic courage among the patriots. During the defense of Fort Sullivan, in Charleston harbor, in 1776, under General Moultrie, the fort bore a flag with a crescent on it. This was before the Americans had adopted a national flag, and a crescent probably signified the belief of the people that a new country would grow stronger as time advanced. In the hottest of the fire this crescent flag was shot away. A sergeant named Jasper leaped down outside the fort and recovered the flag, which he fixed to a sponge-staff. This he stuck in the sand, and then returned unharmed to the fort. For this act the Governor of South Carolina gave

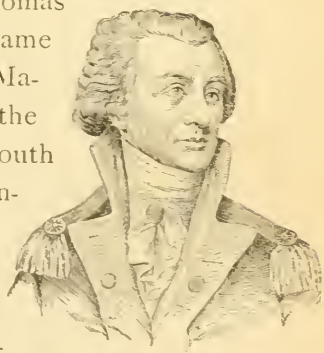
him his own sword. In 1779 he was engaged in the attack on Savannah, when the colors of his own regiment were shot away. Jasper tried to replace them on a parapet, but he was mortally wounded. In this condition he brought away his colors.

In the South as in the North the British army found it hard to gain permanent advantages. The Americans hesitated to enlist in the Continental army because, under the discipline customary at that time, the position of a private was a hard one. Flogging was a punishment thought necessary to good order in the American as well as in the English army, and one can readily conceive that men so high-spirited as the Americans of that day would not readily submit to such discipline. The soldiers were also poorly paid and badly fed. But, however often or severely the army might be beaten, the people at the South as at the North refused to be subdued, but whenever occasion offered rose against the invaders.

Two South Carolina officers gained renown in the irregular warfare which the patriots of that country carried on against the greatest odds. General Thomas Sumter for his resolute fighting got the name of "the game-cock," and General Francis Marion was known as "the swamp-fox." In the darkest hour of the American cause in South Carolina, Marion, who had already distinguished himself as an officer, formed "Marion's Brigade." His men were armed with what they could get. Some carried rude sabers hammered out of old saws; their bullets were often made by melting down pewter mugs and platters. They lived chiefly on hominy and

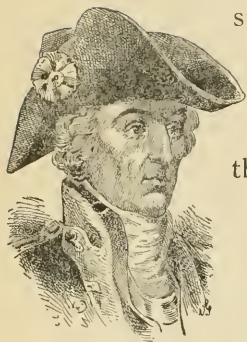
Spirit of the
people.

Marion and his
men.

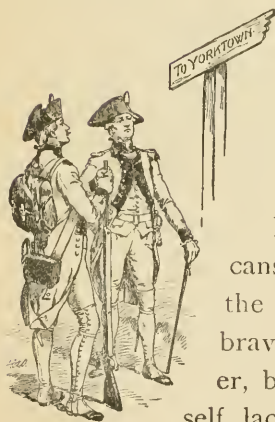


GENERAL SUMTER.

potatoes, and they were capable of any amount of hardship, in which their commander set them a good example by sleeping on the ground, usually without a blanket. With this force Marion would move with incredible swiftness, striking now one weak point in the enemy's defenses and then quickly falling on another far away. He knew every by-way; it was impossible to entrap this swamp-fox. When hard pressed by the enemy, he would disband his force, leaving every man to extricate himself. The enemy would next discover his whereabouts by his falling suddenly in full force again on some remote post. He gave the British no peace; they could not get men enough to hold the country. Yet, with all his boldness, Marion was famed for his sweet temper, his gentleness with his men, and his forbearance toward his foes. He restrained his troops from plunder, he was always opposed to harsh measures against the Tories, and after the war he resisted the passage of acts to confiscate their property.



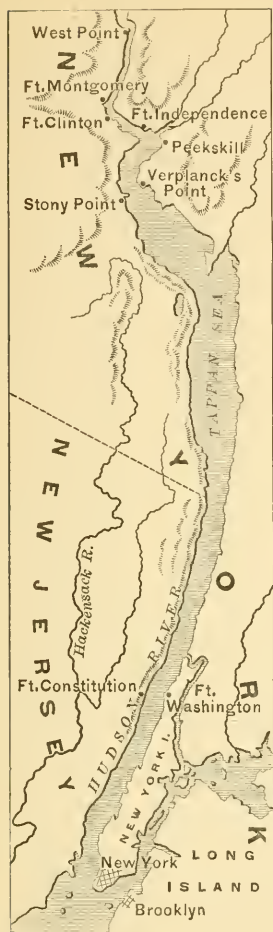
GENERAL MARION.

UNIFORMS OF FRENCH
SOLDIERS IN AMERICA.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE CLOSING YEARS OF THE REVOLUTION.

IT was in 1780, when the affairs of the Americans were at a very low point, that there occurred the treason of Benedict Arnold. Arnold was a brave soldier and a capable and even brilliant leader, but in all the affairs of life he had proved himself lacking in the highest integrity. Arnold had led



REVOLUTIONARY POSTS IN THE HIGHLANDS OF THE HUDSON AND THE LOWER PART OF THAT RIVER.

an unsuccessful expedition against Quebec, and his desperate courage had probably saved the day in the battle at Bemis Heights. He had been accused of speculation in his accounts, and had been once sentenced to be publicly reprimanded by Washington. Arnold opened a correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton, the British general, and afterward got himself appointed to the command of the posts in the Highlands of the Hudson in order to betray them to the enemy. Major André, of the British army, was sent to arrange with Arnold the surrender of his forts. On his way back to New York André was captured by three men, who refused all the rewards which he offered them, and delivered him and his papers to the nearest American officer. André was tried and



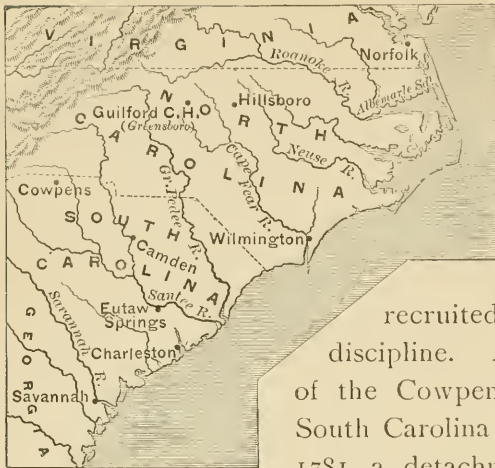
BENEDICT ARNOLD.

Treason of
Benedict Arnold,
1780.



MAJOR ANDRÉ.

hanged for a spy. Arnold had time to escape to the British army, in which he fought with great vindictiveness against the Americans. No name in American history is held so infamous as that of Benedict Arnold the traitor.



Campaign of General Greene in the South, 1781.

With the coming in of the year 1781, American prospects began to brighten. Greene had taken command of what was left of the ruined army at the South, which he immediately

recruited and improved by strict discipline. At the battle of the Cowpens, fought in South Carolina in January, 1781, a detachment under

Morgan defeated a British force under Tarleton. Greene skillfully retreated for two hundred miles across North Carolina to the border of Virginia, followed by Cornwallis. When Cornwallis moved to Hillsboro, Greene, re-enforced, again marched southward, but managed to avoid a conflict until he had gathered new troops. In

the severe battle at Guilford Court-House, Cornwallis drove the Americans from the field at the close of a hard-fought struggle, but the victory was hardly better than

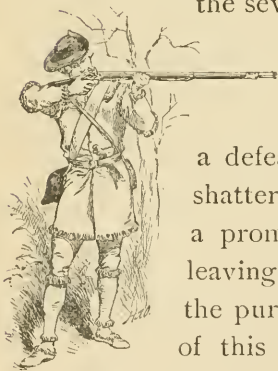
a defeat, for his army was so badly shattered that he was forced to begin a prompt retreat to the sea-coast, leaving his wounded in the hands of the pursuing Americans. The scene of this battle is now called Greensboro, in honor of General Greene.



COLONEL TARLETON.



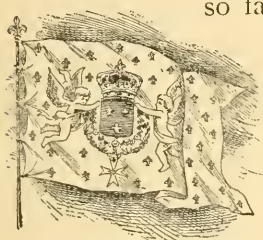
GENERAL NATHANAEL GREENE.



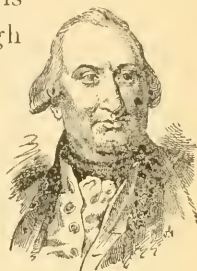
ONE OF MORGAN'S RIFLEMEN.

Cornwallis, who was the ablest of all the English commanders in America, made a junction with the British troops in Virginia, and Greene took advantage of this to reconquer South Carolina from the English. Though often checked and sometimes defeated, he had the satisfaction of recovering the three Southern States so far that the English held only the three chief seaports—Savannah, Charleston, and Wilmington.

Greene reconquers the most of the South.



ROYAL FLAG OF FRANCE.



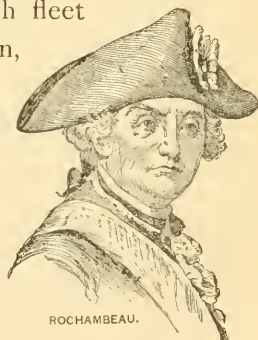
LORD CORNWALLIS.

Reaching Virginia, Cornwallis pushed the work of fighting and destruction with his usual vigor. La Fayette, who was in command of the Americans, showed

Battle of Yorktown and surrender of Cornwallis, Oct. 19, 1781.

much ability in avoiding a battle. Washington now marched his forces to the southward, in company with a French army under Rochambeau. The French fleet blockaded the troops of Cornwallis at Yorktown, and the American and French armies, co-operating in the friendliest way, laid siege to the place. On the 19th of October, 1781, the British army under Cornwallis surrendered, prisoners of war.

The English people had grown weary of the conflict. The surrender of Cornwallis took away from them the last hope of subduing America. From this time it was certain that American independence would be granted by England. Terms of peace were at length agreed on at Paris in 1782, and a



ROCHAMBEAU.

Preliminaries of peace, 1782.



AMERICAN ARTILLERY DRAWN BY OXEN.



WASHINGTON'S
RETREAT TO PRIVATE
LIFE, 1783.

treaty was signed the following year. By this peace England recognized the independence of the United States. Among those who negotiated the peace was the venerable Dr. Franklin.

Washington, who was the idol of the people, resigned his command of the army in 1783, bidding farewell to his troops, and returning to private life at Mount Vernon, like a good citizen. His patience, wisdom, coolness, and unselfish patriotism had procured the successful end of the long struggle.

HOUSE IN WHICH THE SURRENDER
AT CORINTH WAS MADE.



CHAPTER XXXII.

TRAITS AND INCIDENTS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.



JOHN JAY, AS
FIRST COMMANDER OF
THE AMERICAN NAVY.

At the outbreak of the Revolution the American colonies had no navy, and it was quite impossible for them to form one that could contend with that of England, which was the best in the world. But the Americans of that time were a "web-footed people," that is, a sea-coast people, who did nearly all their trad-

ing and traveling by water. They quickly fitted up some ships, that did good execution. At the outbreak of the war the American army lacked powder, arms, and clothing. While powder-factories were building, daring American seamen, North and South, put to sea and captured supplies of powder from British ships. In 1776 ten thousand suits of winter uniform, on their way to Burgoyne's army, were taken at sea. These were sent to clothe the destitute American soldiers.

But the little navy rendered other and more important services. Captain Nicholas Biddle gained much renown by his brilliant successes in a small ship. John

Paul Jones, a Scotchman, had entered the American navy, and

he soon proved himself one of the best seamen and one of the most unconquerable fighters that ever sailed the ocean.

He scoured the English and Irish coasts, a terror to sea and land. In the *Bonhomme Richard* he encountered the English man-of-war *Serapis*, and, finding

no other chance for victory, he ran alongside the enemy and lashed the two ships together. After a bloody battle, enduring two hours, the English ship surrendered. But the *Bonhomme Richard* was so badly cut to pieces that Jones was forced to transfer his crew to the *Serapis*, leaving his own ship to sink.

A great deal of destruction was done to English commerce by privateers—vessels of war fitted out by private individuals. The profits made, even by com-

Early achievements of the Americans at sea



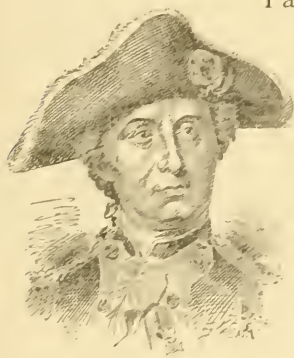
AMERICAN SEAMAN,
1778.

Captain Biddle's success. Paul Jones and the battle of the *Bonhomme Richard* with the *Serapis*.



AMERICAN MARINE,
1778.

American privateers.



JOHN PAUL JONES.

mon seamen, from prizes taken in this kind of war, drew many men into it, and prevented enlistments in the army.

Arms of the Americans and their mode of fighting.



REVOLUTIONARY
POWDER-HORN AND
CANTEEN.



SOLDIER OF THE
CONGRESS. FROM A
DRAWING BY A GERMAN
OFFICER AT THE TIME.

Weakness of the American government during the Revolution.

The farmer-militia usually wore brown tow-shirts and carried long fowling-pieces. Their ammunition was carried in a powder-horn and shot-bag. They were sometimes barefoot, after the fashion of many country people of that time. Bayonets were often lacking. At the battle of Saratoga one of the divisions of the Americans had but one bayonet to every three men. It is said that they put one bullet and two buck-shot in a gun together. There were many men among the Americans whose aim was very deadly. The riflemen from the frontier were capable of incredible accuracy in shooting. Double-barreled guns were almost, though not quite, unknown at that time. The percussion-cap had not yet been invented, but the old firelocks, set off by a burning fuse, had all disappeared. The small arms were probably all flint-locks—guns and pistols that were set off by a flint striking a piece of steel. There were no breech-loaders and no revolvers. Firing was much slower and less effective than now. The bayonet was more important then than in recent warfare.

The American troops suffered extreme hardships. The paper money issued by Congress to pay the soldiers declined in value until it was almost worthless. In more



FORT PLAIN.
A REVOLUTIONARY
BLOCK-HOUSE
ON THE NEW YORK
FRONTIER.



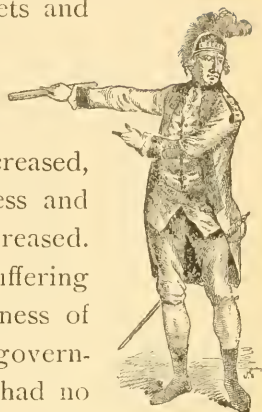
AMERICAN RIFLEMAN.
FROM A PRINT OF
THE TIME.

than one campaign the barefoot soldiers left blood on the ground when they marched. To relieve the necessities of the soldiers, patriotic women collected blankets and sent them to the army.

When the Revolution broke out there were nearly three millions of people in the American colonies. During the war the population increased, and, notwithstanding the interruptions of business and the destruction of property, the wealth also increased. The loss of credit and the inefficiency and suffering of the army were principally due to the weakness of the government. There were, indeed, thirteen governments, bound together very loosely. Congress had no way of making each State pay its proportion of the expense of the war, and so one State waited for another. It was not until some years after the peace that a strong government was formed.

One of the most notable exploits of the war was the bold march of General George Rogers Clark, at the head of a little band of frontiersmen, to the distant posts in Illinois on the Mississippi River. These he captured by courage, skill, and craft, and he also took and held Vincennes in Indiana.

The seizing and securing of these remote posts for the United States were of the highest importance. At the peace with England our possession of these places gave the United States the territory north of the Ohio, and perhaps changed the destiny of the country.



AMERICAN MAJOR-GENERAL. FROM A PRINT OF THE TIME.



ENGLISH GRENADEIER.

Conquest of the Illinois country by Clark.



ISRAEL PUTNAM, A NOTED GENERAL IN THE REVOLUTION.



REVOLUTIONARY MUSKET CALLED "BROWN BESS."

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

State constitu-
tions adopted.

At the beginning of the Revolution the different colonies were governed, in one way or another, by authority derived from England, as we have seen in another chapter. After they went to war with England for their rights, they still carried on government under English charters as English colonies. New Hampshire was the first to change. In December, 1775, more than half a year before independence of England was declared, this colony set up a State government for itself. In the May following, Congress advised the several colonies to form State governments. The people in the different colonies had been accustomed to different ways of transacting their public business. They mostly made their new governments on the plan of the old, only leaving out of the account the authority of the king.

Origin of the
States.

The thirteen colonies, though lying so close together, had been used to acting in almost entire independence of one another, and even in the distresses of the Revolutionary War they jealously held themselves apart, and kept up a kind of separateness of government and interest. It never occurred to them to do away with dividing-lines and make themselves into one state. We owe our present federal system of government to this local feeling, which had been produced by colonial conditions. For a large country like ours the division into States is a fortunate arrangement, and a source of strength to the government; but it was not

brought about by anybody's wisdom, but by the course of events.

When the States had changed to independent forms of government, they still regarded themselves as independent of one another. Congress was only a meeting of the representatives of States allied to one another. The feeling of union and nationality had not had time to grow. All taxes were levied by the States, and the authority of Congress was very weak. Much of the suffering of the armies during the Revolution grew out of the inability of Congress to levy a tax without the assent of the several States, or to raise troops by direct authority. The best endeavors of Washington and his men were thwarted by this lack of cohesion among the States.

States independent of one another.

But these thirteen States, fighting against the same enemy and under the same officers, and suffering the same sorrows, came by degrees to feel themselves a country. They found it necessary to bind themselves together and to give more power to Congress. So, in November, 1777, when the war had been going on two years and a half, Congress adopted a plan for a permanent confederation of the States. This was a very short step toward a national government, for in this plan the States were treated as sovereign nations agreeing to form themselves into a perpetual confederation. Each State had but one vote in Congress, however many representatives it might send, so that the largest State in the Confederation counted for no more than the very smallest. Only the States were recognized; the people, many or few, were not counted. And the several States were so jealous of their independence that it was more than three years after this plan had passed Congress before all the

Confederation formed.

States could be persuaded to agree to it. The Confederation was completed in 1781. It was a wretchedly weak government, which very soon fell into contempt at home and abroad.

Meeting of the
Constitutional
Convention.

But this weak government continued for several years after the close of the Revolution, until it became evident that its feebleness would bring the country to ruin. In 1787 a convention met in Philadelphia to form a constitution better suited to give strength to the nation. George Washington, who had retired to private life when the war was over, was chosen president of this convention. It was a hard task to persuade the convention to agree to lay aside State jealousies and form a strong central government. The best patriots of the day looked with extreme anxiety for the decisions of the convention, for its deliberations were in secret.

The Constitu-
tion framed.

Two or three delegates were so dissatisfied that they withdrew, and it was feared that others would leave, and that the convention would break up without result. The wisest men trembled with apprehension. The aged Franklin, greatly revered by all, rose in the convention one day and expressed his despair by proposing that henceforth the sessions should be opened with prayer. He said there was now no hope except from Heaven, the wit of man having been exhausted. But the probability that a failure of the convention to agree on some plan would throw the country into convulsions, and perhaps into civil war, brought the delegates at length to reconcile their differences, and to unanimously recommend the Constitution as it was finally adopted. When at last the delegates were signing their names, the venerable Franklin said that he had frequently asked him-

self, in the course of the debates, whether the sun pictured behind the chair occupied by Washington as president of the convention were a rising or a setting sun, but that he now knew that it was rising.

But the battle for the Constitution was by no means over when the convention adjourned. The fight which the people had made for the freedom of their local governments from English tyranny had made them jealous of any superior government. There were people who saw in the office of president, provided for in the new Constitution, something kingly, and who feared that the new Congress would prove as tyrannical as the British Parliament had been. It was arranged that the Constitution should not go into force in any part of the country until nine of the States had accepted it. The fight in many States was a bitter one, and it was not until June, 1788, that the ninth State adopted it. Then there was great joy in the minds of those who knew how important a firm national union was. Rhode Island was the last of the thirteen States to accept the Constitution and come into the Union. This she did in 1790.

The Constitution adopted.

The Constitution as then adopted is, with a few amendments, the one we live under now. It is therefore important that we Americans should understand its main features. Under the old Confederation, the execution of the acts of Congress was intrusted chiefly to committees of its own members. But the new Constitution made an almost complete separation of the government into three parts, each of which is confined to its own duties.

Three departments of the Federal Government.

First, the legislative, or law-making, department is called in the Constitution "the Congress." It includes

The legislative department.

two bodies—a House of Representatives, chosen by the people, and a Senate, chosen by the Legislatures of the several States. In the House of Representatives each State is allowed a greater or less number of members, according to its population. In the Senate each State, large or small, has two members. A bill must get a majority of votes in both the House of Representatives and the Senate in order to become a law. It must also be approved by the President. But, if the President refuses to sign it, then two thirds of both the Senate and the House may pass it, and it becomes a law in spite of the President's veto.

The executive department.

Second, the executive department, which consists of the President (and those appointed under him). The President is chosen for four years. He is commander-in-chief of the army and navy. He appoints all the chief executive officers, with the consent of the Senate. In case of the death of the President, the Vice-President takes his place.

The judicial department.

Third, the judicial department consists of the Supreme Court of the United States and such lower courts as Congress may establish. The President appoints the judges of the United States courts, with the advice and consent of the Senate.

The Constitution a result of experience.

This Constitution shows wisdom in the men who made it, but true wisdom always learns from history. Those who adopted the Constitution did not originate its provisions; they were the outgrowth of the history of the country. We have seen in Chapter VI that the Great Charter given to the struggling little colony of Virginia in 1618 provided in an imperfect way a representative government, with two divisions in the Assem-

bly somewhat like our two houses of Congress. The other colonies were formed on this model, with some variations; and all through the colonial time, in all the struggles of the colonies for their liberties, this plan of government was in course of development. In the Federal Government, the President has the power to veto a bill passed by Congress, just as the colonial governor could veto bills passed by the Legislatures. In most of the colonial governments the Upper House, or Council, was appointed by the king or the governor. Our national Senate is chosen by the several States. This is a relic of the old semi-sovereign character of the States under the Confederation. So that the Constitution is a growth, and is only to be understood by studying the history of the people of the United States.

Though the system of intrusting a great deal of our law-making to the several States grew out of the original colonial condition of the American people, yet it has proved to be a great advantage of our plan of government that law-making for the regulation of morals and the ordinary business of life is left to the States, so that the people of each region can have laws suited to their necessities. It is also a great source of strength that the general concerns of the whole country—the money, the foreign commerce, treaties with foreign nations, and affairs of war and peace—are settled by the central government of the whole United States.

Before the Revolution, the Episcopal Church of England was established in the Southern colonies, while the Congregational churches were supported by law in all the New England colonies except Rhode Island. During the Revolution, Thomas Jefferson led a movement in

The division of power between the several States and the United States.

Freedom of religion, of the press, and of speech.

favor of religious freedom. Now there is no religious establishment in any part of the country, but all are free to worship in their own way. The Constitution provides that Congress shall not interfere with religious freedom, or with the freedom of speech or the freedom of the press.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

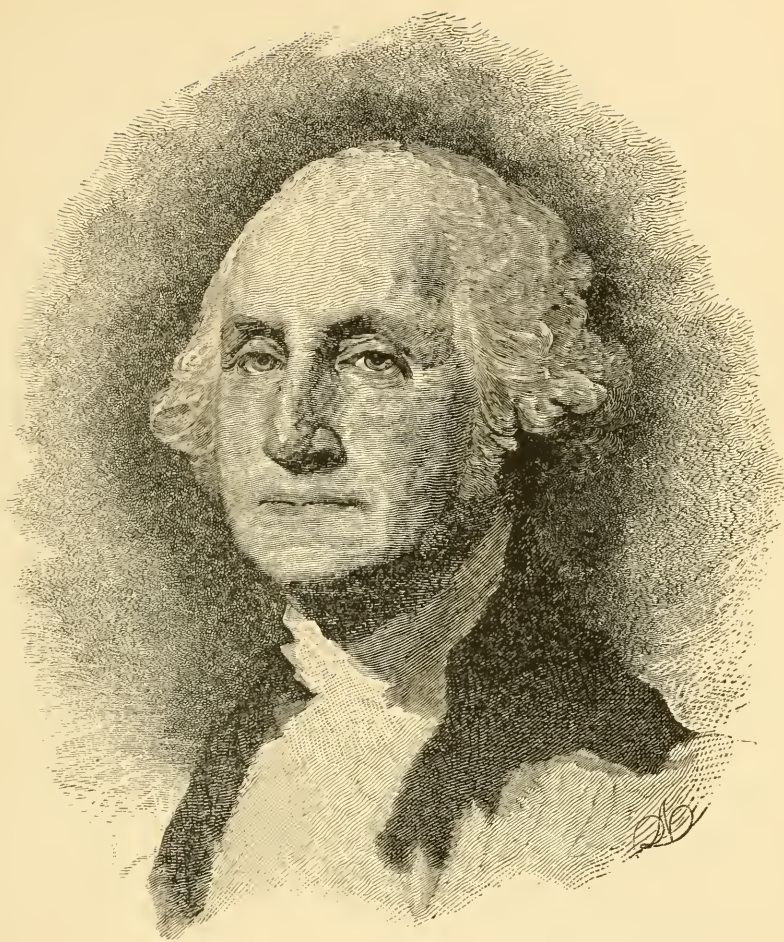
THE NEW REPUBLIC AND ITS PEOPLE.

Washington
elected first
President.

WHEN the Constitution was adopted, a new nation was formed out of thirteen States, which before that time had been almost independent of one another. The old Confederation had no executive head, but by the provisions of the new Constitution there was now to be chosen a President of this new nation, and the whole country turned its eyes to one man. General Washington, who had been for five years living quietly on his plantation at Mount Vernon, was the only person thought of for President, and he was elected without a rival. John Adams was chosen Vice-President.

Washington's
journey to
New York.

As there were no railroads, Washington was obliged to travel in his carriage from Mount Vernon, on the Potomac, to New York, the temporary capital. Everywhere he was detained by the applause of the people, who now looked to his wisdom to complete the work of consolidating thirteen separate States into one nation. Troops of horsemen escorted Washington from place to place, and every town welcomed him. His passage through Philadelphia was a sort of triumph.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

FROM A PAINTING BY GILBERT STUART.

When he reached the bridge over which he had led his victorious little army out of Trenton to fight the battle of Princeton, he found a triumphal arch erected by the women of Trenton. It was supported by thirteen pillars, and had a large dome, with a sunflower and the significant inscription, "To thee alone." Another inscription read, "The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters." As Washington passed beneath this arch, girls dressed in white sang an ode of welcome, and strewed flowers before the newly chosen President.

Washington's
reception in
New York.

From Elizabethtown Point, in New Jersey, he was brought to New York in a handsome barge built for the purpose, and manned by thirteen master-pilots dressed in white. Six other barges, with oarsmen in white, escorted him. When he landed on a carpeted stairs at the wharf, he was received by the governor and the whole city with every possible honor. On the 30th of April, 1789, just

where his statue now stands in Wall Street, the first of the presidents took a solemn oath to support the Constitution of the infant country.

The country, when Washington became President, contained less than four millions of people. The single State of New York has a larger population than the whole country had in Washington's time, and Penn-

The smaller square
represents the population
of the
United States in 1790,
3,929,214.

The larger square
represents the population
of
New York in 1880,
5,082,871.

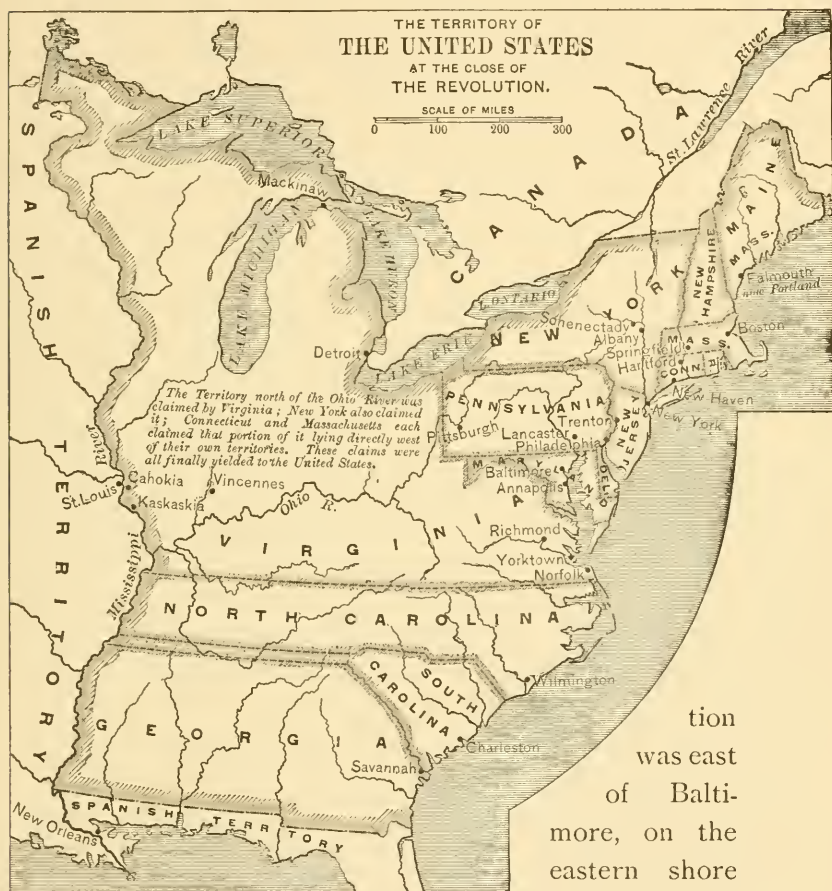
Population of the
country at the
beginning of
Washington's
administration.

sylvania also has more, while Ohio and Illinois have each nearly as many. The census of 1890, when it comes to be added up, will doubtless show that in one hundred years the population has increased to more than seventy

millions, or to at least eighteen times as many as there were when the first census was taken in 1790.

The three or four millions of people in America, when the Constitution made the States one nation, were settled chiefly along the Atlantic coast. The center of popula-

Population mostly along the sea-coast.



tion was east of Baltimore, on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake Bay. This shows how closely the inhabitants clung to the sea, which was almost the only great high-

way of their commerce, for, lacking railways and even good roads, they could carry on little traffic except by sea or along navigable streams. The traveler who made his way up into the country, found the population becoming more sparse, and the houses generally mere cabins. By the time one reached the Alleghany Mountains, there was an end of settlements. All to the west of the mountains was a wilderness, filled with hostile savages and wild beasts, except the little pioneer settlements in Kentucky and Tennessee. The western line of the territory of the United States was the Mississippi River, but the unbroken forests and prairies of that region were about as hard to reach as the interior of Alaska is to-day.

Modes of travel:
sailing-vessels
and stage-
coaches.

The people of the first years of the republic had never dreamed of either railroad or steamboat. One of the commonest modes of travel from one town to another was by sailing-packets. When one set out, it was impossible to foretell the length of the voyage; all depended on wind and weather. It usually took several days to sail by sloop from Albany to New York, and passengers, having provided themselves with patience and plenty of fishing-tackle, thought the lazy journey delightful. Rude stage-wagons were run between the larger towns. It took six days to make the journey from Boston to New York, and two or three to get from New York to Philadelphia. A journey required as many days then as it does hours now.

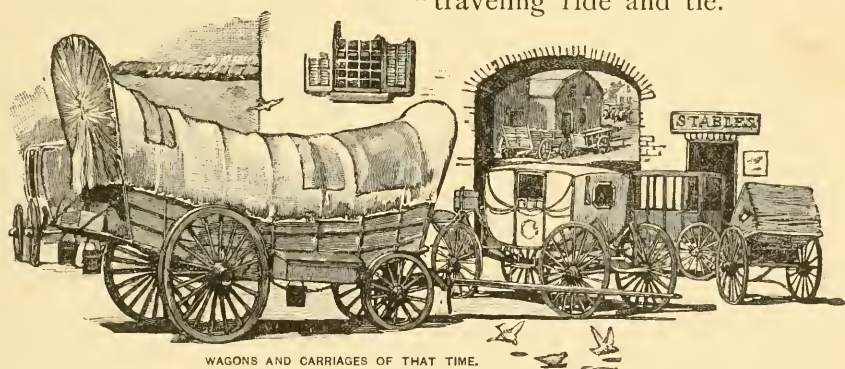
Travel by private
vehicles.

Many traveled in their own coaches or in light two-wheeled vehicles. The ferries were a terror to these. Large rivers were usually crossed in rude scows, and not without danger, but at some places it was necessary to swim the horses over and float the carriage at the stern

of a canoe. Sometimes two canoes were put side by side and lashed together, so that a horse might stand with fore-feet in one and hind-feet in the other, to be ferried over a river.

Probably the most comfortable of all modes of travel at the time was that of riding on horseback. In America there were everywhere horses that ambled naturally. The "natural pacer," of Virginia, and the "Narragansett pacer," of Rhode Island, were highly prized, and were matters of wonder even in Europe. Two people often journeyed with but one horse. The first rode ahead and tied the horse by the road; the second, when he came up, rode on past his companion and in turn tied the horse and left him for the other. This was called "traveling ride and tie."

Horseback traveling.



When Washington became President, all the chief towns were on the sea-coast, or on the tide-water of the rivers, except Lancaster, in Pennsylvania. Outside of that State, the roads were so bad that a large trading-town was not possible away from water conveyance. The interior trade of Pennsylvania was carried on in great wagons, known as Conestoga wagons, each drawn

Badness of the roads generally. The great wagon-traffic in Pennsylvania.

by six or eight stout horses. There were ten thousand or more of these wagons running out of Philadelphia. The wagon-trade with the interior made Philadelphia the chief town of North America. Trade with remote districts of the country was still carried on by means of pack-horses and *bateaux*, or small boats. Men who pushed *bateaux* with poles, or followed the wandering lives of pack-horsemen in the woods, or wagoners from town to town, were naturally rough and boisterous in manners and without much education. There was not much letter-writing then, and the mails were carried mostly on horseback, with little regularity and no speed, so that news sent by mail almost became history by the time it reached the reader. The newspapers were published weekly, and were slow with their news and rather dull in their comments.

Carrying the mails.



Education.

There were schools in all the leading towns and cities. In New England there were schools in almost every township. But there was no public-school system like that which prevails at present. The schools were, for the most part, poor; the discipline in them was severe, and sometimes brutal. Boys were taught to read and write, and sometimes to "cast accounts." Girls learned to read, sometimes also to write. But needle-work and fancy-work were thought more appropriate to their sex. The oldest college in the country was Harvard, at Cambridge, Massachusetts, which was founded in 1638. The next oldest was the college of William and

RIVER
BATEAU.



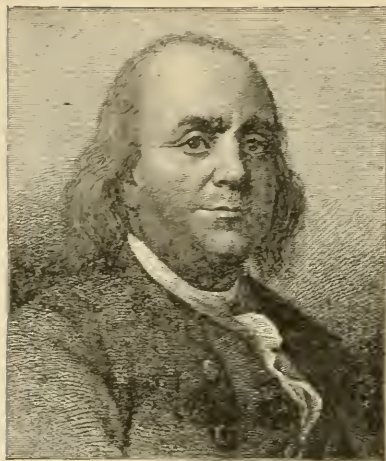
Mary, at Williamsburg, the capital of Virginia, which was chartered in 1693, in the reign of William and Mary, and which at the beginning of the Revolution was the richest college in the colonies. Yale College, in New Haven, founded in 1700, was the third in age. There was also a college in New York, one in Philadelphia, and another in Princeton, New Jersey. But we are not to think of any of these colleges as great institutions. They were, rather, little more than academies in the number of their students and in their provisions for the education of pupils.

For a long time after the colonies were settled there had been little that one could call literature or art or science. People busy in cutting down forests and building new towns have no time to write books or paint pictures. The early books were almost all on politics or religion. But in the fifty years before the Revolution there came to be a considerable interest in science and literature. In the period following the Revolution, nearly all the great minds were interested in politics, and the lighter forms of literature were not cultivated with much success, but the writings of Madison, Hamilton, and others, on questions of state, give luster to their age.

Science, literature, and art.

Almost at the beginning of Washington's administration there died the aged Benjamin Franklin, first of Americans to achieve a world-wide and enduring fame, and one of the very greatest men of his century. Franklin was the son of a tallow-chandler, and was born in Boston in 1706. He learned the printer's trade in his brother's office, and also did some rude engraving for the paper. Though working hard in the daytime, he

Franklin.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

read diligently at night, and made remarkable advancement in knowledge. At seventeen, he went to Philadelphia, entering the city poor, and munching a roll as he walked along the streets of the town of which he was to become the most famous citizen. After many vicissitudes he rose to the ownership of a printing-office.

He published an almanac, known as "Poor Richard's," which became famous for its wise proverbs, and he printed and edited the best newspaper in the American colonies. Franklin was postmaster-general for

the colonies. He became a careful student of the new science of electricity, and in 1752, by means of a kite, he proved that the lightning of the clouds was electricity. This discovery, and the invention of the lightning-rod, made him famous in Europe. He promoted the formation of libraries and other literary institutions, and furthered the public welfare in many ways. He went to

London more than once as agent for his

own and other colonies, and was chiefly influential in securing the repeal of the Stamp Act. He was in London as agent for several of the colonies when the Revolution broke out, but he immediately returned to



BIRTHPLACE OF FRANKLIN.

Franklin in public life.

America. He was one of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence, and he went to France in 1776 as ambassador. In France he was treated with something like idolatry by all classes of people, from the king downward. It was his skillful hand that negotiated the treaty with that country, without which the Revolution could hardly have succeeded. He assisted in making the treaty of peace with England in 1782, and took part in framing the Constitution of the United States in 1787. He died in Philadelphia in 1790, aged eighty-four years. It was said of him that "he wrested the thunder from the sky and the scepter from tyrants." Franklin was a great journalist, author, statesman, patriot, scientist, and philosopher. Few men have ever gained distinction of so many sorts.

CHAPTER XXXV.

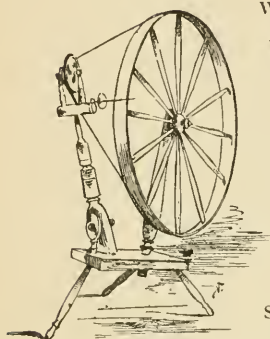
HOME AND SOCIETY IN WASHINGTON'S TIME.

NOT only did the people of the United States, in the time of President Washington, have no railroads and no steamboats, but they lacked a great number of other conveniences. Telegraphs and telephones were unknown. Electric lights are an invention of our own time, but our ancestors did not even have gas or kerosene-oil. Lamps of any kind were almost unknown; houses were lighted with tallow-candles, though some of the people made candles of a green wax derived from the berries of the wax-myrtle tree. The poorest people burned a wick in

Lack of modern conveniences.

a vessel containing a little grease, or lighted pieces of pitch-pine on the hearth. With such lights, it was no great virtue that they went to bed early. Even the streets of large towns were lighted with dim lanterns. Stoves for heating were almost unknown; those for cooking were not yet dreamed of. Wood was the only fuel used in houses. Blacksmiths burned charcoal.

Life among the farmers.



WOOL-WHEEL.

There were few mines and very few manufactures. Wool or flax was prepared and spun at home, and then woven into plain homespun cloths for men's and women's wear. The greater part of the people were farmers, and the farmer rarely spent money. What his family ate and wore was produced at home. The rough shoes worn in winter were, perhaps, bought of a neighboring cobbler, but they were sometimes made at home. The children, and, in many cases, the parents themselves, went barefoot in summer. Plows, wagons, and sleds were mostly made on the farm. In many parts of the country the plow was unknown, and the pack-horse or rude sledge took the place of the wagon. The farming was generally of the roughest kind, but the land was new and fertile.

Habits of the backwoodsmen.

There were many backwoodsmen who had a dress of their own. They wore loose hunting-shirts of deer-skin or homespun, a fur cap, moccasins, and buckskin leggins. These woodsmen lived by hunting, by trapping, by poling boats and driving pack-horses, by small Indian trading, and sometimes by petty farming. Until after the Revolution, mechanics and workingmen wore leathern breeches.

Negro slaves.

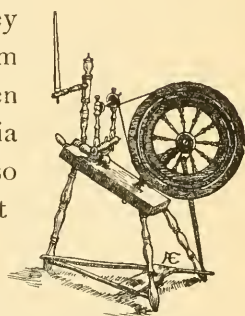
Of the nearly four millions of people in the United States in 1790, about one seventh were negro slaves.

Slavery had existed in Massachusetts from an early period, but it had been declared illegal by the courts of that State about the time of the Revolution. In every other State there were slaves. But they were comparatively few in the Northern States, which had no agriculture in which slave-labor was profitable. Of the Northern States, New York had the most slaves—more than twenty thousand. Nearly seven eighths of all the slaves were in Maryland, Virginia, and the two Carolinas. These were the lands of tobacco, indigo, and rice culture.

In parts of these States country life preserved aristocratic forms derived from England. Here, until after the Revolution, the oldest son of the family inherited the land, according to the custom of the old English law. Some of the great planters lived like nobles. They were accustomed to manage public affairs, and from this class came some of the most eminent statesmen of the period following the Revolution. Virginia was called "the Mother of Presidents," because so many of the early presidents were born in that State. But the poorer people at the South had little or no chance for education, and were generally rude and illiterate. There were few towns in the Southern States, very few mechanics, and little of the ship-building and manufactures that were soon to make New England rich. But in Washington's time the Southern States were the richest as well as the most populous. If they had but little town life, there was much social gayety in the plantation-houses.

The so-called cities of the United States, at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, were only what would now be counted towns of moderate size. But

Traits of life at
the South.



FLAX-WHEEL.

Society in the
cities.



HAT WORN IN
WASHINGTON'S TIME.

in each of these little capitals there was an upper class which affected the style and fashion of the English gentry. Gentlemen and ladies gathered at fashionable houses in the afternoon, and spent the time in talking, and sipping tea from dainty little china cups. Sometimes large parties rode out to a public garden in the country, or a tavern by the sea-side, to drink tea. In most of the chief towns there were held once in two weeks "assemblies," or balls. At these assemblies there were stately minuets and country-dances, and much money was lost and won at card-tables in a room prepared for fashionable gambling, which was then one of the recognized amusements of good society.

Costume in
Washington's
time.



HIGH HEAD-DRESS
OF THE TIME.

About the time of the Revolution gentlemen wore their hair long, and powdered it white. Ladies dressed their hair in a lofty tower. One fine lady of the time paid six hundred dollars a year to her hair-dresser. Gentlemen, as well as ladies, wore bright colors and a variety of rich fabrics, so that a fashionable assembly presented a gay appearance. "Short-clothes," or breeches coming to the knee only, were still fashionable; only very plain men wore long trousers, and even these were obliged to put on short-clothes if they wished to attend a concert or ball.

Comparative dis-
comfort of the
life of the time.

But, with all this gayety in the upper ranks of society, life was less comfortable then than now. The common people lived hardly, with few comforts and fewer luxuries. Even the rich, with all their loaded tables and fine show, lacked some of the substantial comforts of our modern life. There was more drinking to excess then, and there was less refinement in speech and manners, than there is now.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

WASHINGTON'S PRESIDENCY, FROM 1789 TO 1797.

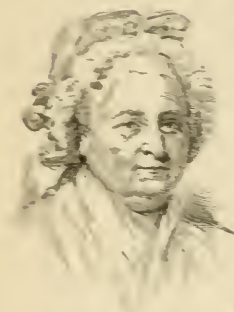
BEFORE the Revolution, officers of state affected a great deal of dignity, and public life was attended with much ceremony, borrowed from the customs which prevailed in England. Much of that division of society into classes which prevails in England had passed over to this country. Students in Harvard College, for example, were placed in a certain order in the catalogue according to the supposed rank of their fathers, and a student was required to yield the baluster side of the stairs to his social superior, though he might be the veriest dunce in the school.

Aristocratic
usages in the
colonies.

But the American Revolution had two sides to it. Apparently it was only a resistance to English oppression. But, in resisting oppression, the claim was set up that the poor man's rights were as sacred as the rich man's, and from this came the assertion that, in matters of right, all men ought to be free and equal. This led the Legislature of Virginia to modify its laws regarding negroes and Indians, and the courts in Massachusetts to declare slavery illegal. A few years before the Revolution the social distinctions in Harvard College were abandoned; and the thought of the equal rights of men which runs through the Declaration of Independence spread easily among the people in a new country such as the United States was at this time, for most of the people were plain, hard-working folk, leading independent lives, and resenting the arrogance of the great.

Democratic
feeling in the
Revolution.

The question of titles.



MARTHA WASHINGTON.

Washington not a partisan.

Anti-Federalists.

But when the Constitution was adopted, and a new government was to take a place in the family of nations alongside the great kingdoms of Europe, it became a question of how much of the old English pomp and ceremony there should be about it. Most of the men in public life were used to the old colonial titles, and the United States Senate wished to address Washington as "His Highness the President of the United States and Protector of their Liberties."

But the people generally, filled with ideas of the equality of men, disliked such pompous titles, and so it was thought enough to call him "The President of the United States." But so fixed were the old notions that fashionable people could not bring themselves to speak of the wife of their President as Mrs. Washington; it became customary to call her "Lady Washington."

The capital of the country, which was at first in New York, was removed to Philadelphia in 1791, to remain there until it should be fixed permanently on the Potomac River. Washington was re-elected in 1792 without opposition. He kept himself aloof from political parties, and tried to be impartial. But his preference for a strong central government attached him rather to the party called Federalist than to its opponents.

In the fierce struggle that led to the adoption of the Constitution, those who favored the federal system of government took the name of Federalists; those who opposed the adoption of the new Constitution were known as anti-Federalists. Some of these opponents were great patriots like Patrick Henry. Samuel Adams was also for a time in opposition. We must remember that, until the Constitution was actually tried, there was room

for doubt as to how it would work, and, as the colonies had suffered from the King and the Parliament of England, the States were naturally afraid that a President and a national Congress might prove as bad.

After the Constitution was adopted, there were still many questions to be settled. The Federalists were in favor of construing the Constitution so as to strengthen the central government. They also liked to see the government conducted with pomp and ceremony. The Federalist party was strong in the cities, and among people of wealth and those devoted to commerce. Such people in that day were generally aristocratic in their feelings, and leaned to English ways. In the war between England and France, the sympathies of the Federalists were in favor of England and against France.

The Federalist
party.

When once the battle over the Constitution was ended, opposition to it also ended, and there were no more anti-Federalists. But those who had opposed the federal system, and some who had favored it, set themselves to interpret the Constitution in such a way as to limit as much as possible the authority of the Federal Government. This party was called the Republican, and sometimes the Democratic Republican party; but it is not to be confounded with the Republican party of later times. The members of this party were afraid that the United States Government would grow too strong, and perhaps overthrow the liberties of the people. They wished to increase the power of the States and diminish that of the United States. They cherished ideas of individual liberty and equality, and were afraid of an aristocracy. The old Republican or Democratic party of that day sympathized with France, which had, in the

The Republican
party.

great Revolution of 1789, overthrown the monarchy and set up a republic, and the Republicans disliked England. Many of them at one time showed their partisanship by wearing the tricolored cockade worn by republicans in France. The Republican party in America wished to bring in republican manners and simple tastes, and they objected to the stately ceremonies which Washington and the Federalists liked.

Alexander
Hamilton.



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

The leader of the Federalists was General Alexander Hamilton. This great man was born in the Island of Nevis, in the West Indies, in January, 1757. His father was poor, and he was put into a counting-house. At fifteen years of age he wrote for the "St. Christopher's Gazette" an account of a hurricane that had just desolated the Leeward West India Islands. The remarkable ability shown in this description attracted the attention of the chief men of the place, and the boy was sent to the American continent to be educated. In 1774, when but seventeen years of age, while a student in King's College (now Columbia College), in New York, he made a speech on the Revolutionary side at a large meeting in the fields, which at once stamped him as a wonderful youth. He also wrote several anonymous pamphlets which attracted great attention, and were attributed to the leading men of the party. In 1776, when he was but nineteen, he took command of an artillery company, and so distinguished himself at the battle of White Plains and in the retreat across New Jersey that Washington put him on his own staff. He was employed by Washington in many delicate and confidential missions, and he distinguished himself in more than one

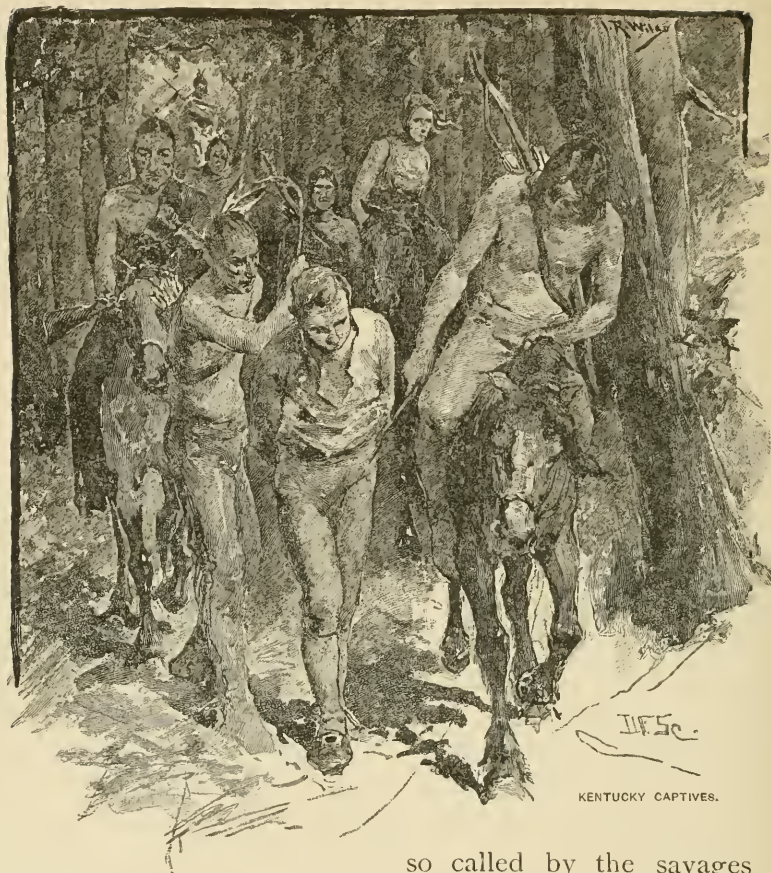
battle. He led the assault on one of the British out-works at Yorktown. But his great work lay in his efforts to persuade the American people to adopt the Federal Constitution, by which the national existence was firmly established. As the first Secretary of the Treasury, he held Congress firmly to the duty of paying every dollar of the national debt at its face. He also prevailed on Congress to adopt the debts incurred by the States in carrying on the war, and he thus established the credit of the nation and strengthened the Federal authority. In his notions of government he favored English models. Hamilton was killed in a duel with Aaron Burr in 1804.

The leader of the old Republican party was Thomas Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence. He was Secretary of State in Washington's first Cabinet, while Hamilton was Secretary of the Treasury, so that the chiefs of the two great parties were in the Cabinet at the same time, a thing impossible in our day.

Jefferson the
leader of the
Republicans.

During Washington's administration there began those troubles with the Indians which have plagued the government and the people of the frontiers from that day to this. The English Government refused to surrender forts which it held among the Indian tribes in what is now Ohio, and encouraged the savages to hostilities. There arose in consequence a most deadly and cruel war between the white settlers in Kentucky and the tribes living on the north side of the river. More than fifteen hundred Kentucky settlers had been killed in seven years, and very many carried away to die by torture or to languish in captivity. The name "Kentucky" signifies "Dark and Bloody Ground." It was

Indian troubles
at the West.



KENTUCKY CAPTIVES.

so called by the savages because of the fierce encounters which took place there between the different Indian tribes, none of whom dared to inhabit Kentucky permanently. The horrible slaughters of settlers in the same territory made it also a dark and bloody ground to the white people.

Harmer's defeat.

General Harmer was sent against the Indians in Ohio in 1790, but the wily chiefs Blue Jacket and Little Turtle waited until he had divided his troops, when they fell on part of them, and destroyed them almost utterly.

General St. Clair was selected to attack the Indians in the following year. He was surprised by Little Turtle and a strong force of Indians, who routed his army. The Indians butchered the wounded with the most brutal cruelty while St. Clair's army was in flight.

St. Clair's
defeat, 1791.



GENERAL ST. CLAIR.

Washington was greatly distressed at this defeat. He now selected General Wayne, who had gained distinction in the Revolution, and whose courage was such that he was called "Mad Anthony Wayne." Wayne was born in Chester County, Pennsylvania, in 1745. He received a good education for the time, and became a land-surveyor. During the troublous times of

Wayne's career.

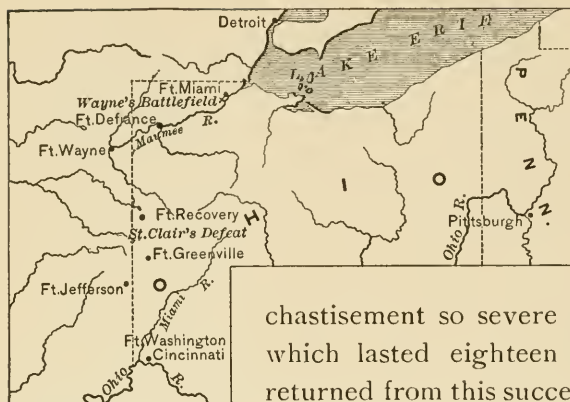
1774 and 1775 Wayne devoted himself to drilling military companies in his own county. He entered the army as colonel in 1776, and distinguished himself in many actions. His most notable exploit, perhaps, was the storming of Stony Point, on the Hudson. This formidable work he carried at midnight by a bayonet-charge, the soldiers' guns being empty. He afterward handled a small force in Georgia in such a way as to hold in check a much larger body of British troops. It was his careful organization and bold execution of various enterprises during the Revolution which caused his selection by Washington to retrieve the fortunes of the Indian war after St. Clair's defeat.



ANTHONY WAYNE.

Wayne was as prudent as he was brave. The Indians called him "The Black Snake," and they also called him "The Chief who never Sleeps." After trying in vain to make peace with the Indians, Wayne attacked and defeated them, driving them from their

Wayne's victory
on the Maumee,
1794.



WAYNE'S CAMPAIGN
AGAINST THE INDIANS.

The whisky
rebellion, 1794.

Retirement and
death of Wash-
ington.

hiding-places by a brilliant bayonet-charge. This battle was fought in 1794, on the Maumee River, in north-western Ohio. The Indians received a chastisement so severe that it gained a peace which lasted eighteen years. When Wayne returned from this successful expedition against the Indians, he was received in Philadelphia in triumph.

There was about this time a rebellion in western Pennsylvania, known as "the Whisky Insurrection." The people of that remote region raised Indian corn. The roads over the mountains were such that they could not well haul this corn to market, so they fell to making it into whisky, in which shape it was less bulky and more easily carried. The new United States tax on whisky interfered with this business, and the people rose against the revenue officers. Washington sent troops to enforce the law, and the people submitted after the ringleaders of the rebellion had fled.

Washington declined to be a candidate for the third time, and in September, 1796, the "Father of his Country" issued a farewell address, full of good advice. At the end of his term, in March, 1797, he retired to Mount Vernon, where he spent his last days in peace. He died December 14, 1799, almost at the close of the eighteenth century. Of the many great men of the last century, he was, though not the most gifted, probably

the most illustrious. The whole United States paid honor to his memory, and to this time his is the only American birthday celebrated as a public holiday.



MOUNT VERNON.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

TROUBLES WITH ENGLAND AND FRANCE.—PRESIDENCY
OF JOHN ADAMS.

WHEN the English government acknowledged the independence of the United States, in 1783, there remained still in the hands of English troops, as we have said, certain military posts in the Indian country which were within the territory of the United States. The English government retained these posts among the Indians, and, by the encouragement given to the tribes, kept alive the Indian war. When Wayne defeated the Indians on the Maumee, he found Canadians fighting on the side of the Indians, and he drove them before him under the very guns of a fort held by the English, who did not dare to aid the savages and their allies. There was also much anger in America against the English government on account of the illegal seizure of American vessels by British cruisers.

Grounds of complaint against England.

Jay's treaty.



JOHN JAY.

To prevent a new war with Great Britain, Washington sent John Jay to England in 1794 to make a treaty. "Jay's Treaty," as it was called, was very unpopular in America, especially with the members of the Republican party, who thought that it yielded too much to England. But it was confirmed by Washington and the Senate, for, according to the Constitution, every treaty made with a foreign nation must be agreed to by the Senate. It provided for the surrender of the Western forts by England, and it prevented a war with Great Britain, which would have been a misfortune to so weak a country as ours was at that time. When a war with England came at last, in 1812, the United States had nearly twice as many people as it had when the Jay treaty was made.

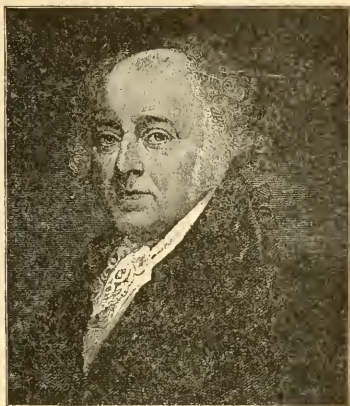
France and the
Jay treaty.

This treaty with Great Britain was exasperating to the French government, which was then engaged in war with England. As France had helped the United States to gain its independence, the French expected the assistance of America in their new war with England. Washington wisely kept this country free from alliances with either of the contending nations.

Election of John
Adams, 1796.

In 1796 John Adams, the candidate of the Federalist party, was chosen President over Thomas Jefferson, who was the candidate of the Republicans, or Democrats. Adams, who was the son of a farmer, was born in Braintree, Mass., in 1735. He graduated at Harvard, taught school for two years, and began the practice of law when he was twenty-three years of age. He took an active part in the Stamp-Act agitations from 1765 onward. He removed to Boston in 1768, and soon became a leading

lawyer and a chief of the Revolutionary party. Adams was one of the foremost men in the Congress of 1774 and 1775, and was one of the leading advocates of the Declaration of Independence. He was one of the commissioners to negotiate the treaty of peace with England, and was minister at London for three years. Adams was Vice-President during the whole of Washington's presidency. He was an able and courageous man, honest and true to his convictions, but irritable and somewhat quarrelsome. His peculiarities had something to do with his unpopularity and his defeat when he ran for the presidency a second time. He died on the 4th of July, 1826, exactly fifty years after the Declaration of Independence, and on the same day with his ancient rival, Jefferson.



JOHN ADAMS.

The administration of Adams was occupied with the difficulties with France. That country, after the great Revolution that overthrew the monarchy in 1789, had now fallen into the hands of a government called the "Directory." It was composed of five directors. The successes which their armies achieved under the command of the rising young general, Napoleon Bonaparte, made the Directory very overbearing. When the United States sent a new minister to Paris, the French government refused to receive him, and presently ordered him to leave the country.

In 1797, President Adams, who desired to avoid a war if possible, sent three envoys to France, having assur-



CANNONEER, 1797.

Discourteous behavior of the French Directory.

The Directory seek to extort money from the United States.

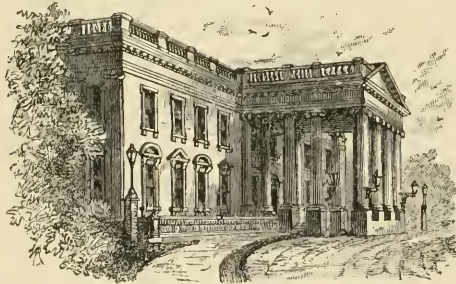


SEAMAN, 1798.

"Not one cent
for tribute!"

Peace made with
Napoleon Bona-
parte.

Removal of the
capital to Wash-
ington, 1800.



THE WHITE HOUSE.

ances that they would be received with honor. But the American envoys were informed that, in order to secure a peace, the United States must make a loan to the French government and pay secret bribes to the members of the Directory.

The envoys refused this dishonorable demand, and, when it was known in America, the popular cry became, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute!" The tricolored cockade was no longer worn, but a black cockade was put on by those in favor of a war with France. "Hail, Columbia," then a new song, became universally popular. Ships were built, an army was raised, and Washington was made commander-in-chief.

But the French did not wish a war, and Napoleon Bonaparte, who had now overthrown the French Directory, made a new agreement with the United States in September, 1800. Thus the infant country again escaped a war.

In the year 1800 the government was removed from Philadelphia to Washington City. In 1790 Congress had

resolved to fix the permanent capital on the Potomac River, and the selection of the site was left to Washington himself. When the government moved there, in 1800, the place was almost a wilderness. The few people living in the new town were

scattered over the whole region, and one sometimes had to go a mile or two through a forest to see his next-door neighbor, though both were living within the "Federal City," as Washington had named it.

It was thought desirable that the national capital should not be within the jurisdiction of any State. A tract ten miles square was given by Virginia and Maryland to form the District of Columbia. But the portion taken from Virginia was afterward ceded back to that State. The District of Columbia is governed wholly by laws made in Congress, in which its inhabitants have no representative.

The District of
Columbia.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

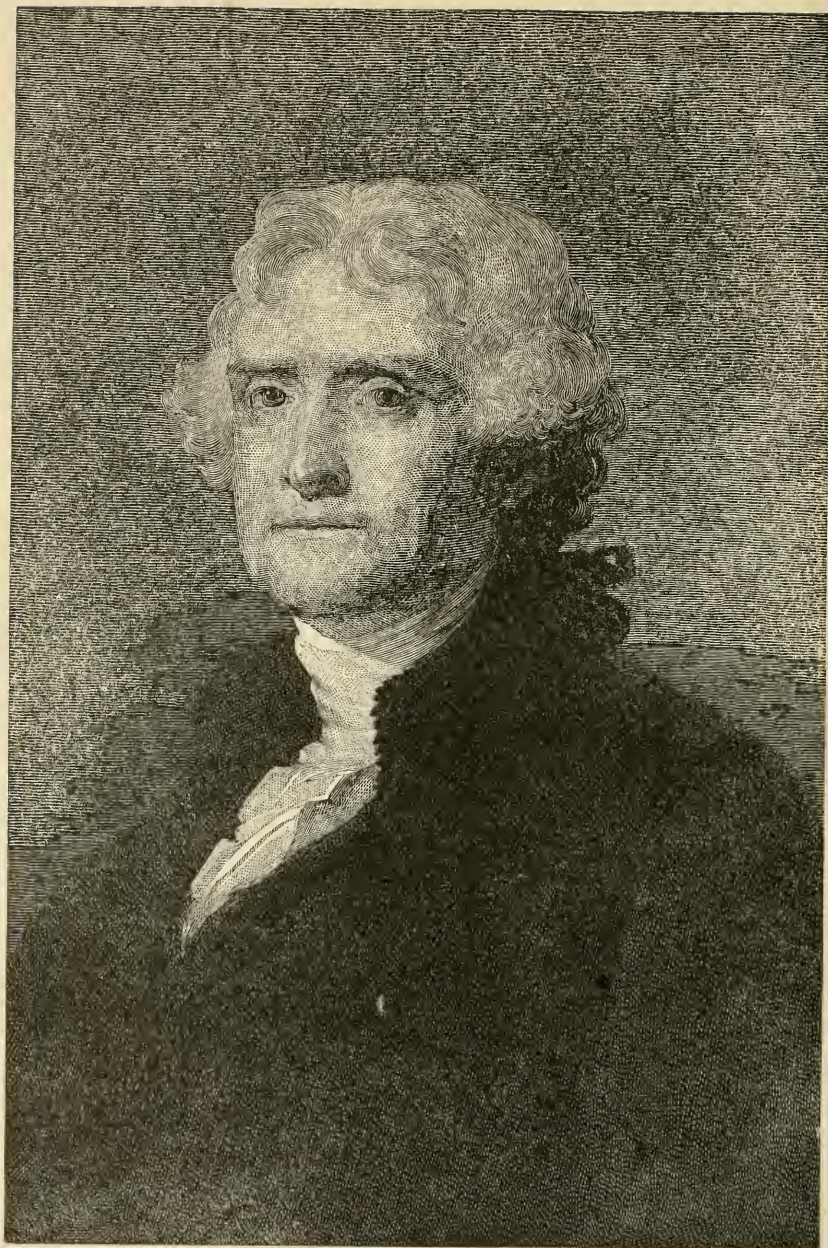
ELECTION OF JEFFERSON.—WAR WITH TRIPOLI.

THE Federalists favored a strong government, as we have said, and, like every party, they were inclined to carry their principles to an extreme. In the excitement caused by the troubles between the United States and France they were led to pass laws more stringent than was necessary, and certainly more severe than public opinion justified. Foreigners were required to live in America fourteen years before they could be naturalized. By what was called the "Alien Law," the President was given authority to send out of the country, without trial, any "alien" or unnaturalized foreigner. By the "Sedition Law," speakers and newspaper writers were to be severely punished for "libeling" the officers of the government. Many of the people thought the alien law took away the right of trial by jury, and that the sedition law attacked free speech



JEFFERSON'S SEAL.

The alien and
sedition laws.



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

and a free press. The unpopularity of these laws contributed to the overthrow of the Federal party, and the cry of "the Alien and Sedition Laws" was kept up against the party to the end of its existence.

In the presidential election of 1800, John Adams was the Federalist candidate a second time, but he was defeated, and the Federalist party never was able to elect another President. The Federalists had secured the adoption of the Federal Constitution; they had made the national government strong; and they had begun the work of paying the national debt in full, and so making the credit of the government good. No party ever did a better work than the Federalists did in bringing a bankrupt and disorderly confederacy into a firm union.

Services rendered by the Federalists.

But the Federalists leaned too much to the English notions of government that had prevailed before the Revolution. The Republicans held more to the equality of men; they trusted the people, and believed in progress toward a larger personal liberty. The Federalist movement made us a nation; but the movement represented by the old Republican party made us republicans and Americans.

The Republican party and its work.

The events which took place during the election of 1800 disclosed a serious defect in the workings of the Constitution. The convention which framed that instrument had been afraid to trust the people with the election of the chief magistrate of the nation, perhaps because they had not been accustomed to such an election by the people in the colonies. At one time it was the intention of the framers of the Constitution to have the President elected by Congress; but this seemed to make him too dependent on that body. So a new plan was

The old mode of electing a President.

invented. The people were to choose "electors" in every State, in proportion to the population of the State, or rather to its number of representatives in Congress. Each of these electors was to vote for two men for President. The one receiving the highest vote was to be President, the one receiving the second highest number was to be Vice-President. This plan produced a quite unexpected effect in 1796, in which year John Adams was made President, and Thomas Jefferson, the leader of the opposite party, became Vice-President.

Struggle between
Jefferson and
Burr in 1800.



AMERICAN SEAMAN IN
JEFFERSON'S TIME.

In 1800 the Republicans resolved to elect Jefferson President and Aaron Burr Vice-President; but, as the only way of electing a Vice-President was by voting for him as one of the two candidates for President, it happened that both Jefferson and Burr received the votes of all the Republican electors, and had, therefore, exactly the same number of electoral votes, although nobody had thought of Burr for President. The Constitution provided then, as it does now, that the choice between the two, in case of a tie-vote, should be by the House of Representatives. The Federalists disliked Jefferson in particular, as the great chief of the Republicans; the most of them, therefore, voted for Burr. This produced a new tie in the House of Representatives, and there was danger that the 4th of March would arrive and find the country without a President; but, after a long struggle, some of the Federalists cast blank votes, and allowed Jefferson to be elected.

The Constitution
changed.

This dangerous struggle led to a change in the Constitution, by which the electors were to vote for but one candidate for President and one for Vice-President.

This method of voting for electors still prevails, but it has not served the purpose intended by the founders of the government. They hoped that each State would choose a body of its ablest men, and that the people would leave the work of choosing a President to these electors. But the people vote for electors, each pledged to vote for a particular man. The voter takes no notice of the names of the men for whom he votes as electors; he really votes for the candidate for President. The electors only serve to record the popular vote by States.

During Jefferson's time, the United States was at peace with all the great powers. The wars raging in Europe had injured the commerce of England and France. Foreign merchants, whose countries were at war, preferred to send goods in American vessels, to prevent their being captured by the enemy. In this way American commerce became very prosperous.

The little Mohammedan states, along the southern coast of the Mediterranean, had long carried on a piratical warfare against the trade of Christian countries. The nations of northern Europe paid them a yearly tribute to protect their ships from robbery. The United States was obliged to redeem from slavery Americans captured by the Dey of Algiers, and also to pay tribute. But in 1801 the Pasha of Tripoli, having been refused additional presents, broke into open war.

This war may almost be said to mark the birth of the American navy. It was a period in which Americans were fond of danger-



AMERICAN SOLDIERS
ABOUT 1800.

Prosperity of
American com-
merce.

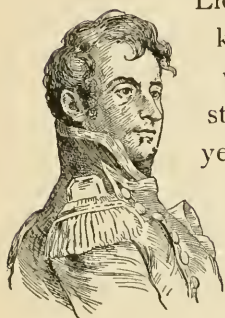
War with the
Barbary pirates,
1801.



Achievements of the infant American navy in this war. Peace, 1805.

ous exploits. The officers and men of this small sea-force, mostly recruited from merchant-ships, performed acts of daring before Tripoli which have never been forgotten, and which yet serve for an example to their successors. In many actions Americans boarded the pirate-ships, and fought in desperate hand-to-hand encounters, with swords, pikes, and bayonets. The frigate *Philadelphia*, having run on the rocks, was captured by the Tripolitans, and the crew reduced to slavery.

Lieutenant Decatur ran into the harbor at night in a ketch, boarded the frigate and burned her, escaping with his men by rowing his little boat under a storm of fire from the enemy's batteries. After four years of blockade and war, the obstinate ruler of Tripoli was brought to terms. He made a treaty of peace in 1805.



STEPHEN DECATUR.

The later war with Algiers. Abolition of tribute, 1815.

But in 1812, Algiers, another of the Barbary powers, declared war against this country, captured American vessels, and reduced the crews to slavery. The same Stephen Decatur, who, as a lieutenant, burned the *Philadelphia*, was sent to the Mediterranean Sea, in 1815, as commodore of a squadron. He captured the chief vessels of the Dey, and forced that prince to release his prisoners, and to come on board the commodore's ship and sign a treaty. The United States never afterward paid tribute to any of the pirate powers.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE SETTLEMENT OF THE GREAT VALLEY.

THE first settlers in Virginia tried more than once to reach the mountains, hoping to find gold there. At a later period the Virginians sought to cross the mountains in order to get to the Pacific Ocean. In 1679 a German explorer named Lederer tried to go across the mountains from Virginia; but the people who went with him deserted him, and, though he boldly pursued his journey alone and returned safely, he seems barely to have succeeded in reaching the mountains, and he certainly did not come anywhere near to the Pacific. Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, also tried to go through the mountains with a company of gentlemen, and he claimed to have discovered a pass by which one could get over. When he came back he instituted an order of "Knights of the Golden Horseshoe," formed at first of those who had been with him on the journey. The people in the colonies commonly rode their horses bare-foot; but for this extraordinary journey in the mountains, where there were rocks, it became necessary to shoe the horses. Hence the name of this order, every member of which wore a golden horseshoe.

Early expedi-
tions to the
westward.

But, while the French were exploring the whole interior valley and making friends and allies of many savage tribes, the English authorities in the colonies were without much enterprise in this direction. It was thought by English statesmen that settlements in the interior would neither buy English goods nor be subject to Eng-

Opposition to
Western settle-
ment.

lish control, so that it was a favorite plan with them at one time to establish a western boundary beyond which the settlements should not advance, which was much like making a law to regulate the tides of the sea.

Descent of the
Ohio and Mis-
sissippi.

But the mysterious wilderness, infested by tribes of fierce and cruel Indians, piqued the curiosity of daring men, and from time to time one and another ventured to push far into the unknown land and bring back strange stories of its appearance. It was told that one John Howard, with his son, at an early period, had traveled through the desolate mountains to the Ohio River. Here they killed a buffalo-bull and made a boat by stretching the animal's hide over ribs of wood, after the frontiersman's manner. In this frail craft they made their way many thousands of miles down the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers to New Orleans, where the French authorities, who then possessed Louisiana, sent them to France on suspicion of being spies. They were afterward released, and got back to Virginia. In 1766 the same perilous voyage was made in a pirogue by Captain Gordon, a British engineer.

The pioneer
race.

In the gradual spread of settlements from the sea back toward the mountains there had been formed a new race of men, the like of whom the world had hardly ever known before. These were the frontiersmen, who kept moving forward in advance of the settlements; men loving solitude, hardship, and danger for their own sakes. The whole power of the British Empire could not have prevented these daring fellows from following their impulse and pushing across the mountains into the western valleys. They were trained from their youth in all the arts by which a backwoodsman lives without buying or

selling. Such men know how to get food and raiment and shelter in the most desolate wilderness with no other tools than a trusty rifle and a sharp knife, and no supplies but what they can carry in powder-horns and bullet-bags. If the first settlements at Jamestown and Plymouth could have been planted by such a race of pioneers, half the early miseries of these colonies would have been avoided.

One of the finest types of this class was Daniel Boone. He lived on the Yadkin River, in North Carolina. As early as 1760 Boone crossed the Alleghanies into the unbroken wilderness. There stands, or stood until lately, a tree in Eastern Tennessee which bore the following inscription carved upon it, probably by Boone himself, with that awkward use of letters to be expected of a backwoodsman: "D. Boon Cilled A. Bar On Tree in ThE yEAR 1760."



DANIEL BOONE.

In 1769 Boone went into what is now Kentucky with a party. One of his companions was killed by the Indians, one was eaten by wolves, and three were lost, no one knows how. Boone himself had been seven days a captive among the Indians, but had managed to escape. There being no one left but Boone and his brother, the brother went back for ammunition and horses, and Daniel Boone was for one winter the only white inhabitant of Kentucky. During this time he had frequently to change his sleeping-place from night to night in order to avoid falling into the hands of lurking savages; and he had an encounter with a bear, from whose grip he only saved himself by killing it with his knife. At this time he was three years without tasting bread or salt. After he had built a palisaded fort and

Boone settles
Kentucky.

brought settlers to Kentucky, his daughter and two other young girls were carried off by the savages, and Boone was captured in trying to rescue them. He was only released by an attack made by his friends when he had been tied to a tree to be put to death. Carried into captivity afterward, he barely escaped torture, and was adopted into the tribe, from which he escaped in time to warn his friends at Boonsborough that a party was marching to attack the place. In a fight with two Indians he exposed himself enough to draw the fire of one of them, whom he shot; then, drawing the fire of the other in the same way and dodging it, he came to a hand-to-hand struggle, and warded a blow from the savage's tomahawk with his empty gun while he killed his antagonist with his knife. Boone survived his perils, and lived to see populous States where he had explored trackless forests. He died in Missouri, at the age of eighty-three.

Hardihood of the
pioneers.

Kentucky was settled by men of this type, and an equally bold race took possession of Tennessee and of the other States west of the Alleghanies. The incessant conflicts with the savages, who were encouraged by the English during the whole period of the Revolution, would have disheartened men and women of any other type. But in the middle of every stockade like Boonsborough there was an open space where these daring people, when not actually beleaguered by Indians or engaged in toil, forgot their hardships and perils in social intercourse or passed their leisure hours in merry frolics and dances. This race, now disappearing, was distinctly the product of American conditions, and has left its stamp upon the interior country to this day.

Some of the colonies had been chartered to run through to the Pacific Ocean, and these claimed all the territory west of them as far as the United States extended—that is, to the Mississippi River. The Virginia charter, which was the oldest, made the line of that colony run “west and northwest.” Under this charter Virginia claimed much of the territory north of the Ohio River, and all of that which now forms Kentucky. The territory lying north of the Ohio was ceded to the United States by Virginia and the other States claiming it.

Territory north of the Ohio River ceded to the General Government.

In 1787 this territory was organized as “The Northwest Territory,” and its government was regulated by an act which has since become very celebrated. It is commonly known as “The Ordinance of Eighty-seven,” from the year in which it was adopted. The Ordinance of Eighty-seven declared that, in the Northwest Territory, all children of



a father who died without a will should inherit the estate equally, thus doing away with the aristocratic privileges given to the oldest son under the English and colonial laws. It also forbade slavery in the territory north of the Ohio. This ordinance made Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin free States.

The Northwest Territory established by the “Ordinance of Eighty-seven.”

The Ohio pioneers.

The foundation of the State of Ohio was laid by a company of emigrants from New England, who settled on the Muskingum River in 1788. They were led by General Rufus Putnam and the Rev. Manasseh Cutler. They called the boat which floated them down the river on their arrival the "Mayflower." They called their new town Marietta, in honor of Marie Antoinette, then Queen of France, who had taken a lively interest in the American Revolution. These settlers were a fine body of educated people. They suffered many hardships and perils during the Indian wars.

Great rush of emigrants to the West.

Soon after the adoption of the Ordinance of 1787 and the purchase of the Indian title to the land, people began to pour into the Western country, some to the north side of the Ohio, others to re-enforce the settlements already established by Boone and his companions in Kentucky, or those founded by Robertson, Sevier, and other pioneers in Tennessee. A large number of Revolutionary officers and soldiers, impoverished by the war, were among these settlers, particularly in Ohio. The first emigrants carried their few goods over the mountains on pack-horses. Those settling on either side of the Ohio embarked at Pittsburg or Wheeling in large flat-boats roughly built of green lumber. In these they floated down the river to one of the new settlements on its banks. The flat-boat was then broken up, and its planks used in building the settler's cabin. Pennsylvania wagons, after a while, took the place of the pack-horse in the journey over the mountains to Pittsburg.

Rude and dangerous life of the first settlers west of the mountains

The people of this interior country were almost shut out from the world. They raised flax and sometimes grew wool, and spun and wove at home. Their spin-

ning-wheels and looms were made by themselves. For chairs they made rude stools, their tables and bedsteads were such as they could make, and they used wooden bowls for dishes. They tanned their own leather, and made rude shoes at home, but half the year they went barefoot when not on a journey. The husks of Indian corn were used for making various articles, such as ropes, horse-collars, brooms, and chair-bottoms. Barrels and bee-hives were made by sawing hollow trees into sections. By splitting one of these sections a child's cradle was constructed. For tea they drank a decoction of sassafras-root or the leaves of the crop-vine. Their sugar they got from the maple-tree. Their small boat was a canoe made from a single log, or a pirogue, which was a canoe enlarged by splitting it in the middle lengthwise and inserting a plank. The danger from Indians was so great for many years that the settlers never went to their fields without carrying their rifles.

Whatever supplies the Western settlers got, they brought from the towns on the eastern side of the mountains, by means of pack-horses and wagons. Even iron was thus imported, and in many regions salt brought on pack-horses sold for ten dollars a pound. For these goods the settlers exchanged furs, ginseng, and other light articles. The produce of Western farms was too heavy to be packed across the mountains. It could only be sold by floating it thousands of miles down the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers to New Orleans. This was done mostly in very large flat-boats, which were rowed down the river with great sweeps, but could not be brought back against the current. The flat-boat men at first got home in a roundabout way by taking passage on ships

Pack-horse and
flat-boat trade.

sailing from New Orleans to Virginia or Maryland, and then crossing the mountains to Pittsburg.

Boats and boatmen on the Ohio and Mississippi.

But, as there was a necessity for some trade up the river as well as down, there were presently used the "bargee" and the "keel-boat," both of which had sharpened bows, and could be toilsomely forced up against the stream by setting poles, oars, and sails in turn, and which sometimes were towed, or "cordelled," by the boatmen walking along the shore. Four months were consumed in the voyage from New Orleans to Pittsburg. The boatmen were rude and lawless, and navigation was rendered dangerous by the Indians and highwaymen that infested the banks of the rivers.

CHAPTER XL.

THE PURCHASE OF LOUISIANA AND THE TREASON OF AARON BURR.

Settlement of
Louisiana.

OF course, the settlements of English people before 1800 were all made in the country east of the Mississippi, which was then the western line of the United States. All the territory from the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains was included in what was then called Louisiana. We have related in a previous chapter how the region about the mouth of the Mississippi River was first explored by La Salle. The first settlement in Louisiana was made in 1699 by emigrants from France. In 1722 New Orleans was made the capital of the Louisiana country, and in 1727 wives were sent out to

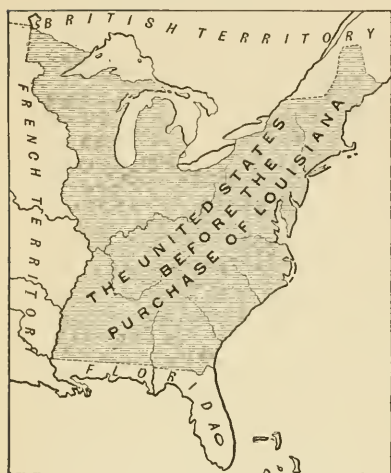
the settlers on the plan adopted by the English for peopling Virginia a hundred years earlier. In 1762, after the English had taken Canada, France ceded Louisiana to Spain. For a long time the principal industry was the raising of indigo, but in 1794 the culture of sugar was introduced, and the colony was at once rendered prosperous.

As the mouths of the Mississippi were entirely in Louisiana, Spain wished to deny to our people the right to navigate the river freely. The Western people were a warlike race, and they wished to make short work of the difficulty by seizing New Orleans and the lower Mississippi. Our government sought to make a more prudent settlement by buying enough of Louisiana to give us a way to the sea. But in the year 1800 Napoleon Bonaparte, who was fast getting control of Europe, procured the cession of Louisiana back to France. He entertained, along with the other dazzling schemes that filled his brain, the project of rebuilding the French power in America. James Monroe and Robert R. Livingston were commissioned by President Jefferson to buy from France, if possible, the portion of Louisiana needed to secure to the United States a free navigation to the sea, including the city of New Orleans. But Napoleon had begun to see that England, all-powerful at sea, would wrest Louisiana from his grasp. He therefore surprised the American commissioners by offering to sell to the United States the whole territory. The commissioners had no instructions to make so large a purchase, but there was no time to communicate with America; the opportunity to more than double the territory of their country was a

The French offer
to sell the prov-
ince.

dazzling one, and they concluded a treaty of purchase, by which the United States was to pay fifteen million dollars. When the treaty was concluded, the negotiators all rose, and Livingston said: "We have lived long, and this is the fairest work of our lives. The treaty we

have just signed will transform a vast wilderness into a flourishing country. From this day the United States becomes a first-class power. The articles we have signed will produce no tears, but ages of happiness for countless human beings." By this purchase the country acquired more territory than all she had before possessed, and there was opened to her the prospect of becoming one of the greatest nations on the earth.



Territory included in the Louisiana purchase.

Discontent in the Southwest.

French Louisiana included in whole or in part the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, and the Territories of Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, and the Indian Territory—that is to say, there are at present twelve very large States and Territories almost wholly made from Louisiana as bought from France in 1803.

Before the purchase of Louisiana there had been some dissatisfaction in the Western country, and a few restless characters had labored to further a project for separating the interior country from the Eastern States, which seemed remote in that day of slow and tedious traffic by horse-paths through the mountains. After the annexation, the French inhabitants

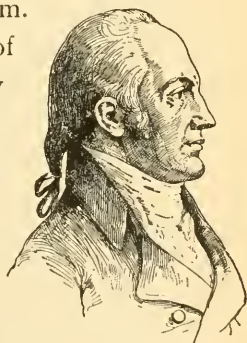
of New Orleans, and the region about it, were not well pleased that they had been transferred to the United States without their own consent. Spain at that time held Texas, and was in a state of semi-hostility to the



United States. The people of the Southwest, on the other hand, were not averse to war with Spain. These various causes of discontent and disturbance offered a field for an ambitious and intriguing man. Such a man was Aaron Burr.

After Burr had allowed himself to be used against his own party in 1800, endeavoring to snatch the presidency from Jefferson whom he had supported, the Republicans would have nothing to do with him. The Federalists, hoping to succeed by the aid of Burr's friends, nominated him for Governor of New York. But Alexander Hamilton, the great leader of the Federalists, would not support a man so mischievous as Burr, and he procured his defeat. Burr, in revenge, fought a duel with Hamilton and killed him. This made Burr more than ever detested, and he now embarked in a dark scheme to seize territory from the Spaniards in Mex-

Downfall of
Aaron Burr.



AARON BURR.

ico, and probably to detach Louisiana and perhaps all of the Western States from the United States, and so to play the small Napoleon on the American continent. He enlisted soldiers and procured arms, and started flat-boats loaded with these down the Ohio and the Mississippi. But his plot was discovered and he was tried for treason, but he could not be convicted for want of sufficient evidence. He spent most of his remaining years in poverty and popular neglect, and died at an advanced age.

CHAPTER XLI.

BEGINNING OF THE SECOND WAR WITH ENGLAND.

The war between
England and
France.

DURING Jefferson's administration the English government was involved in a long war with Napoleon, who had made himself Emperor of the French, and had conquered a great part of western Europe. He was, perhaps, the greatest military genius of modern times, and it seemed that nothing could withstand his armies. But Great Britain, being an island, was protected by the intervening channel from the advance of Napoleon's troops. England, moreover, remained in possession of the sea as the greatest maritime power in the world.

Impressment of
seamen.

English naval officers were allowed to impress seamen from British merchant ships—that is, to force them to serve in ships of war—and in this struggle with Napoleon they found themselves in great need of seamen. But England had also long claimed the right to impress her

own subjects when found on ships of other nations. Many English sailors sought employment in American ships, and every man born in Great Britain who sailed before the mast in an American vessel was liable to be seized by an English man-of-war. As English naval officers were allowed to judge whether a man was a native of their country or not, thousands of natives of America were impressed on British ships. It was very exasperating to Americans to have their ships stopped on the high-seas and searched, and their citizens forced to serve in the navy of a foreign power. American seamen hated this impressment system; and one poor fellow, when ordered to get his clothes and come on board an English man-of-war, went below and chopped off his left hand, and came on deck with the bleeding stump, on which the officer left without him. But England was all-powerful on the sea, and the United States had to bear with such insults or give up sailing ships.

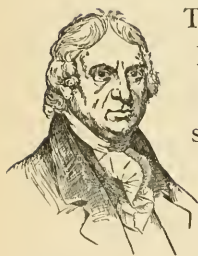
During this war between England and France, which shook the whole civilized world, our country tried to be neutral. But England wished to interrupt our trade with the countries under control of France, while Bonaparte issued orders to check our trade with England. The successive decrees which these two powers issued, one after another, became so severe at last that our ships could not sail to any port without the greatest danger of being seized by the cruisers of one or the other nation. As the English were much stronger at sea than the French, they did us the more harm.

If our country had been strong, it would not have borne these outrages so long; but it was then but a small nation, and far from being prepared for a war with Eng-

Interference with
our commerce.

The embargo of
1807.

land. President Jefferson was very anxious to avoid war, and to go on paying off the debt of the country, which was his leading purpose. The President thought that the United States might get the offensive decrees repealed by stopping all its trade with the outside world. An act was therefore passed in December, 1807, forbidding the departure of vessels from American ports. This was known as "The Embargo of 1807," or "Jefferson's Embargo." The embargo was the only very unfortunate act of Jefferson's administration, which, up to this time, had been most popular. It was like destroying our own commerce to keep others from ruining it. While our ships rotted in port, English ships got the trade with other nations which we had lost. New England and New York suffered heavily by the destruction of their commerce, and were therefore very much opposed to the embargo. Some hot-headed people in the Eastern States talked of dissolving the Union, to get rid of the embargo, which would have been much like cutting off one's head to cure a toothache. The embargo was called a "terrapin policy," as though the country had pulled its head and feet into its shell, as a terrapin does when frightened. This embargo lasted about fourteen months, until the law was repealed in 1809.



GEORGE CLINTON.

Election of
Madison, 1808.

In 1808, James Madison, of Virginia, was elected to succeed Jefferson. He was the candidate of the Republican, or Democratic, party, for, notwithstanding the unpopularity of the embargo, the Federalist party was now so much in the minority that it carried but a little over one fourth of the electoral vote. George Clinton, of New York, was elected Vice-President.

In 1811 the irritation of the American people against England was increased by the outbreak of an Indian war in the Northwest. It was believed that English agents furnished arms to the Indians, and encouraged their hostility to the settlers. The Indians were at this time under the control of the great Shawnee chief Tecumseh and his brother, who was called "the Prophet," and who pretended to speak by inspiration. These brothers were two of three children born at the same time. They were of the Shawnee tribe. Tecumseh was a warrior, while his brother wrought upon the superstitions of the Indians by falling into trances and pretending to be a prophet. He carried about a string of sacred beans and other objects of reverence. He and Tecumseh deserted their own tribe and settled on the Wabash, where the fame of the Prophet's visions and other hugger-muggering drew multitudes of Indians from various tribes to them. When any chief or other influential man opposed the schemes of the brothers, the Prophet had influence enough to have him put to death for witchcraft.

Tecumseh took the extreme ground that the whole country belonged to all the tribes in common, and that the tribes who had sold their lands to the white men had done what they had no right to do. He wished to force the government to give up all lands north of the Ohio. He traveled from tribe to tribe, trying to form a confederacy of all the Indian nations. Those gathered about him were from several different tribes; he really formed a new tribe of Indians, whom he gathered from one band and another into his personal following.

Tecumseh and
the Prophet.

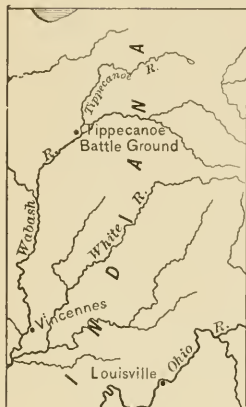


TECUMSEH.

Tecumseh's con-
federacy.

Battle of Tippecanoe.

In October, 1811, General Harrison, then Governor of Indiana Territory, marched with nine hundred men against Tecumseh's tribe at Tippecanoe. On the 6th of November, Harrison arrived at the Prophet's town. Here he was met by a deputation of three Indians with a peaceful message. The general, therefore, encamped for the night, the men sleeping on their arms. Tecumseh was absent from the town, and the Prophet had no one to hold him in check. About an hour before daylight the savages attacked Harrison's camp. The frontiersmen who formed Harrison's force were asleep when firing began, but they soon rallied, put



out their fires, so that the Indians should not see them, and then fought bravely in the dark. Harrison rode from one part of the line to another with great steadiness, though his hat-brim was perforated and his hair grazed by a bullet. The Prophet kept at a safe distance on a neighboring hill, where he chanted a war-song in a loud voice. Animated by their fanaticism and the song of their Prophet, the savages came out from cover and fought with a daring unusual in their battles. But, shortly after daylight, the troops made a final charge, which drove the Indians from the field. The loss on both sides was heavy. Tecumseh returned from the South a little while after, to find his town in ruins and his confederacy destroyed.



"THE PROPHET."

In June, 1812, the United States declared war against England. Preparations were immediately made for invading Canada; but the

Americans had rushed into war without being ready, and they met nothing but disaster at first. The Canadian authorities, on the other hand, had taken every precaution against invasion. The first blow was struck by them in the far-off wilderness. Fort Mackinaw, on an island in the straits between Lake Michigan and Lake Huron, was captured by a force of English and Indians before the American commander there had heard of the declaration of war. This removed all restraint from the already hostile savages of the upper country, and gave to the English the support of all the Indian tribes of the interior.

Declaration of war, 1812. English successes.

There was a little garrison in Fort Dearborn, where the city of Chicago now stands. When Mackinaw had fallen into the hands of the English, this garrison was ordered to evacuate the fort; but, as they marched out, they were attacked by Indians, and, after a desperate struggle, they were nearly all killed.



An old Revolutionary officer, General Hull, had been sent to invade Canada by way of Detroit. But Hull was unfitted by age to command. The authorities at Washington had managed badly in not supplying and supporting him as they should, and he had not the vigor to overcome the difficulties by which he was beset. He surrendered Detroit, against the judgment of his officers, to the great grief of the army and the bitter disappointment of the country.

Surrender of Detroit.

Indians in the war.

Meantime the little garrison at Fort Wayne, and the eighteen men under Zachary Taylor in Fort Harrison, successfully endured with splendid fortitude sieges from hordes of Indians, who tried every means their ingenuity could devise to cut off these two places, both of which were at length relieved. Tecumseh had been made a brigadier-general in the British army, and his popularity had drawn a powerful band of Indian warriors to his standard. At the surrender of Detroit the British general, Brock, put his own scarf on Tecumseh as a mark of distinction, which highly pleased the chief. But he was too wily to wear it; he put the scarf on Round Head, a warrior of the Wyandots, older than himself.



MADISON'S HOME AT MONTPELIER.

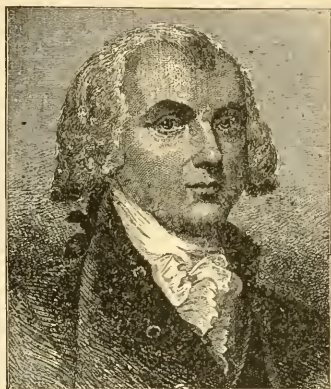
CHAPTER XLII.

THE NAVY IN THE WAR OF 1812.

Madison's career and character.

JAMES MADISON, the President elected in 1808, was re-elected in 1812. Madison was born in Virginia in 1751. In youth he was an industrious student, and was in some regards the best provided with knowledge of all the American statesmen of his time. He was honest and

faithful to the last degree. During the Revolution he was a member of the Virginia Legislature, and later a member of Congress. He was one of the first promoters of the convention that framed the Constitution, of which he became a leading member, and he did much to secure the adoption of the Constitution by the several States. He was one of the earliest advocates of entire religious liberty. Madison held the office of Secretary of State in Jefferson's administration. As a member of the Constitutional Convention and of Congress, he proved himself one of the foremost statesmen of the country, and he had much influence in giving shape to the government; but Madison was less fitted for the presidency than for the floor of Congress. He was lacking in military qualities, and he was forced into the war by the opinion of the country and against his own judgment, so that the President was from the start but a half-hearted leader. Madison retired in 1817, at the end of his second term, and he died in 1836, at the age of eighty-five.



JAMES MADISON.

At the beginning of the war the generals selected to command were mostly Revolutionary officers, too old to be good commanders. The soldiers were high-spirited, but undisciplined. They sometimes refused to obey a disagreeable order, or to follow an unpopular commander; sometimes they turned about and went home. They even threatened the life of a general whom they thought guilty of cowardice.

Character of the
soldiers in 1812.

Attempt to invade Canada.

The main purpose of the government at the beginning of the war had been to invade Canada. But the old General Dearborn, who had command of the army on the Canadian frontier, was inefficient. The troops were brave, and some of the officers distinguished themselves in various battles, but the conquest of Canada proved a difficult task. General Hull, as we have seen, contrived to lose Detroit and the whole Northwest.

Neglect of the navy at the beginning of the war.

The Republican party of that day, which was the party advocating the war, had always professed a dislike for a navy. In preparing for war, the whole reliance had been upon the army, and the little navy had been neglected. The success of our soldiers was not doubted, but it seemed folly for a few ships to encounter the navy of Great Britain, which was then completely "mistress of the seas." It was generally believed the world over that no seamen could hold their own against the British, and it had become a proverb that, when the French launched a man-of-war, it was only another ship for the English to capture. Our government was so much convinced of English superiority that it even tried to keep its strongest ships in harbor to save them from the enemy, and they were only allowed to sail on the indignant protest of the naval officers—the only persons in the world who had any faith in the American navy. When our men-of-war put to sea, it was said that they would soon be captured, and the government relieved of the expense of maintaining them. Yet in the first year of the war the failures of the army under weak officers were most disheartening, and the country was only saved from complete discouragement by the bold triumphs of the daring little navy.

The first inspiring success of the navy was merely a success of seamanship. The frigate *Constitution* was chased by a squadron of British ships in wind so light that both parties were forced at times to tow their ships by sending boats ahead, or to pull them forward by dropping kedge-anchors. The English put most of their boats to towing one frigate, in order to overhaul and cripple the *Constitution*, so that the rest might capture her. It

The frigate *Constitution*.



CONSTITUTION AND GUERRIÈRE.

was only by superior management of all the devices known for getting ahead at sea that the seamen on the *Constitution* contrived, after three days and nights of almost unrelenting toil, to lose sight of their pursuers, who had been more than once within long cannon-shot.

But the *Constitution* did not content herself with saving her timbers from a superior force. In August, 1812, Captain Isaac Hull, on board that vessel, encountered the frigate *Guerrière*, one of the vessels that had

Constitution
and *Guerrière*.



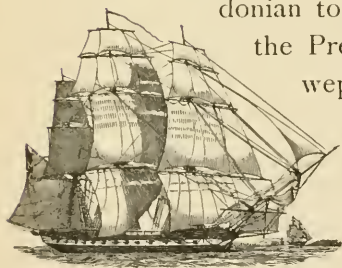
BRITISH FLAG.

lately chased the Constitution. There ensued one of those desperate naval duels of a sort which can never take place again, perhaps, since wooden men-of-war propelled only by sails have fallen into disuse. In one hour and ten minutes the *Guerrière* was disabled and captured. The effect of this success in America was as tremendous as it was unexpected. When, soon after, the sloop-of-war *Wasp* beat the English sloop *Frolic*, the public joy knew no bounds; for, though the damage our little navy could do was small, it had at last proved that the English were not invincible at sea. One of the most notable captures was that of the *Macedonian* by the frigate *United States*, under command of Stephen Decatur, the same who, as a young man, had captured and set fire to the *Philadelphia* under the batteries of Tripoli. The news of Decatur's victory over the *Macedonian* brought a new accession of joy to the country. A young officer, who bore the official report of the victory to the capital, entered a large public assembly, escorted by two other officers, and presented the ensign of the *Macedonian* to Mrs. Madison, the wife of



MRS. MADISON.

the President. The assembled guests cheered and wept with enthusiasm, while the young officer's mother and sister, who were present, embraced him, delighted that he had come safely out of the battle. The year was closed by the capture of a fourth man-of-war, the frigate *Java*. This was



THE CONSTITUTION.

effected by the Constitution, which had now become famous under the nickname of "Old Ironsides." This ship had the fortune to win brilliant victories under three different commanders.

There were other victories than these we have mentioned, and some defeats, but the prowess of American seamen excited admiration everywhere. It was a war for sailors' rights, and the sailors were deeply interested in it. The adventurous character of American life in that day had developed a spirit of personal daring well suited to naval warfare. Such was the emulation of officers that in boarding an enemy's ship they actually pulled one another back in some instances, so eager was every one to get over the side of the hostile vessel first. One American seaman on the Constitution, in her battle with the Java, remained on deck in a dying condition until the enemy surrendered, when the poor fellow raised himself with one hand and gave three cheers, and, falling back, expired.

There were many affecting examples of courage in these contests. In the losing fight of the Chesapeake with the Shannon, when Captain Lawrence was carried below mortally wounded, he said, "Don't give up the ship!" These words became a battle-cry in the navy, and a watchword for brave men in difficult circumstances from that time to this.

The exploits of a little navy, pitted against the greatest maritime power the world had ever seen, set the people wild. When the commanders of successful vessels returned to port, cities welcomed them with banquets, State Legislatures voted them swords, and the General Government struck medals in their honor.

Courage of
American sea-
men in battle.



SEAMAN, 1815.

Death of
Lawrence.



LAWRENCE.

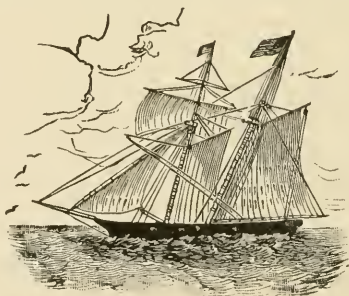
Admiration for
the navy.

The Essex in the Pacific.

The Essex, under Captain Porter, took the bold resolution of rounding Cape Horn into the Pacific to protect American whalers from English cruisers. This was the first American ship of war in those waters, and, as the authorities in South America were unfriendly, Captain Porter was obliged to depend on her captures for supplies. Here he maintained himself for more than a year, taking English ships and recapturing American whalers that had been taken, until, in March, 1813, the remarkable career of the Essex was closed by her capture by two British ships in the offing at Valparaiso, after a severe conflict.

Privateers in the War of 1812.

The skillful seamanship and bold handling of the American ships during this war introduced something like a new sort of naval warfare. Unimportant as were these naval victories in proportion to the power of the British navy, they tended more than any other event of the war to secure for our seamen equal rights on the ocean. Besides men-of-war, there were many private vessels fitted out under authority of the government as privateers. These scoured the seas, and captured or destroyed above sixteen hundred British ships. The seamen on them fought with the same splendid courage as their brethren in the navy. The swiftest of these privateers were of the kind known as "Baltimore clippers."



BALTIMORE CLIPPER.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE ARMY IN THE WAR OF 1812.

GENERAL WINCHESTER, also a veteran of the Revolution, was appointed to succeed General Hull, after the latter had surrendered Detroit. But the Kentuckians, who formed the most important element in the Northwestern army, remembered the surrender of Detroit by one superannuated officer, and they did not wish another. With that independence of strict discipline which was as characteristic of them as their courage, they declared their unwillingness to serve under anybody but Harrison, whose vigor at Tippecanoe had won him the favor of the Western country. The government could not do otherwise than yield to the wishes of the Kentuckians.

Harrison appointed to command the Northwestern army.

Winchester was put in command of a part of Harrison's army, but the same ill-luck attended him that befell the other Revolutionary officers who were brought forth in old age to command in this war. Winchester was defeated on the river Raisin, in Michigan, in January, 1813. He surrendered his men to the British general, Proctor, a very brutal man, who, to his eternal infamy, left the wounded Americans to be massacred and plundered by the Indians of his army. The Americans were roused to revenge, and the war-cry of the enraged Western troops became, "Remember the river Raisin!"

The defeat on the river Raisin.

In the spring of 1813, General Proctor, with a great force of English soldiers and Indians under Tecumseh,

Siege of Fort Meigs by Proctor and Tecumseh, 1813.



Croghan's gallant
defense of Fort
Stephenson, 1813.

laid siege to Harrison's little army in Fort Meigs. When Proctor, whose force was much stronger than Harrison's, sent a demand for the surrender of the fort, Harrison answered, "Tell General Proctor that, if he shall take the fort, it will be under circumstances that will do him more honor than a thousand surrenders." Harrison and his troops contrived to thwart every endeavor to capture the fort until re-enforcements arrived, when the enemy gave up the siege and retired.

In the summer following, Fort Stephenson, a weak stockade with a single six-pound gun, was brilliantly defended by a young Kentucky officer named Croghan, with only a hundred and sixty men, against a force many times as strong, commanded by General Proctor. Harrison ordered Croghan, who was but twenty-one years of age, to abandon the fort. But Croghan, like other Kentuckians of the time, cared more for courage than for subordination, and, knowing the fort to be important, he resolved to hold it. The English tried to persuade him to surrender, to avoid the massacre of his garrison at the hands of the Indians, to which the answer was, that when the fort should be given up there would not be found a man alive in it. Croghan shifted his six-pounder from one angle to another, to give the impression that he had several heavy guns. When the fort was assaulted at its weakest part, the Kentucky riflemen opened a deadly fire. But the brave English soldiers at length reached the ditch, and began to chop down



INFANTRYMAN,
1812-1814.

the stockade. The six-pounder, which had been double-loaded with grape-shot and slugs, and concealed where it covered the whole ditch, was suddenly fired. Hardly a man of the assailing party escaped, and the English army retreated the next morning. During the night, Croghan's men, not daring to open the gate, let down water to the wounded Englishmen outside, and at length, by means of a trench, brought them in and cared for them.

In order that Harrison's proposed expedition against Canada might succeed, it became necessary to gain control of Lake Erie. Both sides made the utmost exertions in building ships in the wilderness. American mechanics were brought from Philadelphia on sleighs. Oliver Hazard Perry, an officer but twenty-seven years of age, had charge of the American preparations from the beginning.

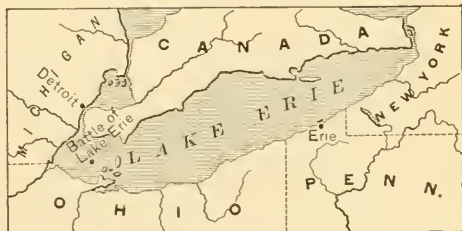
A little fleet was launched on Lake Erie at length, and its officers and men were anxious to rival the glory of the American ships at sea. In the battle of Lake Erie, fought on the 15th of September, 1813, Commodore Perry hung up for his signal "Don't give up the ship!" the dying words of Lawrence. When his flag-ship was riddled and disabled by the enemy, he took down his signal and got into a small boat, and was rowed to another vessel, standing upright while the enemy was raining shot about him. Reaching the ship Niagara, he sailed down on the British line and broke it, and at length compelled the whole fleet

Preparations on
Lake Erie.



PERRY.

Battle of Lake
Erie, 1813.



to surrender. "We have met the enemy, and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop," Perry wrote to General Harrison at the close of the battle. One of the most effective devices used by Perry in this action was the firing of bits of scrap-iron sewed up in leathern bags. By this means he was able to tear the enemy's sails to pieces, and leave his ships helpless.

Harrison's advance.



DRESS OF A FRENCH
CANADIAN ABOUT
THAT TIME.

Battle of the
Thames.

Death of
Tecumseh.

Perry's victory opened the way for a forward movement by Harrison's army. In Harrison's general orders, when he set out for Canada after Perry's victory, he said: "Kentuckians, remember the river Raisin! but remember it only while victory is suspended. The revenge of a soldier can not be gratified upon a fallen enemy."

Harrison retook Detroit, crossed into Canada, and pursued Proctor's army, which he overtook at length on the river Thames. The two forces were about equal, but Proctor formed his army in open order, as is usual in fighting against Indians. Harrison took advantage of the weakness of the British line, and ordered his cavalry to break through the center and get in the rear. This was done at a dash, and the English army was soon utterly routed. Proctor, afraid of falling into the hands of soldiers who remembered the river Raisin, saved himself by fleeing in a carriage, and then by leaving his carriage and taking to the woods.

The brave Tecumseh was killed in resisting the first charge of the cavalry. He was one of the ablest men produced by the Indian race, and it is to his credit that he never countenanced the barbarous custom of torturing prisoners. The battle of the Thames, and the death

of the warlike Tecumseh, broke up the confederacy of the Indian tribes, and brought peace to the frontier.

Though Harrison and his Westerners succeeded so well in invading the sparsely settled Upper Canada, the attempted invasion of Canada to the eastward was no easy task, and it proved a failure under the lead of the feeble old generals who had survived from the Revolution. But the rise of young generals—Brown, Scott, and Ripley—to command changed the aspect of affairs, and an invasion of Canadian territory was made in the summer of 1814. Fort Erie was taken, and the battle of Chipewewa was won by the Americans early in July. The battle of Lundy's Lane was stubbornly contested, and lasted till mid-

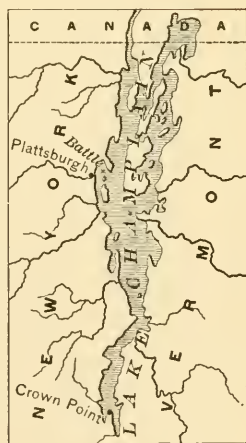


FRENCH CANADIAN WOMAN.

Attempts to conquer Canada not successful. Battle of Lundy's Lane, 1814.

night. The Americans were left in possession of the field, but the next day they retreated. Before winter set in, the Americans retired to their own side of the Niagara River.

In March, 1814, Napoleon was conquered and banished to the island of Elba. England, having now peace in Europe, was free to send re-enforcements to Canada, and in this same summer of 1814 the English entered the United States, by Lake Champlain, the way so often traveled by French and English expeditions in the old French wars and in the Revolution. Sir George Prevost, the British commander, had made



English attempt
to invade the
United States,
1814.

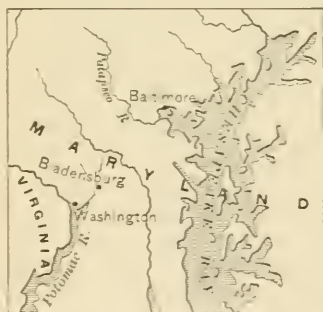


MACDONOUGH.

his preparations carefully, and on the 11th of September, 1814, a sharp engagement between the advancing English army and American troops took place at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, while the little squadron of British and American craft were fighting on the water.

The result of the naval battle decided the fate of that fought on land. The English vessels were superior in men and guns to the Americans, but the fate of the doubtful conflict was won by the skillful management of Commodore Macdonough, who commanded the American fleet. The English squadron was at length compelled to surrender a part of their vessels and to get the rest away as quickly as possible. So severe was the fight, that not a sound mast was left in either squadron—the masts were splinters and the sails were rags. As soon as the English general learned that the fleet had been beaten, he drew off his men, and that night made a precipitate retreat to Canada.

Battle of Bladensburg;
fall of
Washington, 1814.



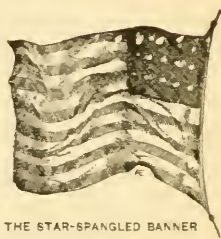
But the English invasion, by way of Chesapeake Bay, was more successful. In August, 1814, the British landed in Maryland an army stronger than any that could be brought to meet it. On the 24th of that month a battle was fought at Bladensburg, which resulted in a victory for the English, who entered Washington, and burned the Capitol and most of the public buildings. The same force that had taken Washington attacked Baltimore by land and water, but the vigorous defense of that place forced the British to retire.

It was during this attack that the song called "The Star-Spangled Banner" was written. Francis S. Key, the author of the song, had gone to the British squadron, with the consent of the President, to secure the release of a friend detained as a prisoner. Key was himself detained during the attack on Baltimore; and when the firing had ceased, uncertain of the result, he waited for the daylight, to see which flag floated at Fort McHenry. When he saw that the Stars and Stripes were still there, he wrote the verses on the back of an old letter. They were soon after printed, and, as they suited the patriotic feeling of the times, they were soon sung all over the country.

The song of "The Star-Spangled Banner."

It is a noteworthy fact in the history of the flag that the "Star-Spangled Banner" of Key's time had fifteen stripes and fifteen stars. The old flag of thirteen stripes and as many stars had been changed in 1795 to fifteen of each, in view of the accession of Vermont and Kentucky to the Union. But in 1818 the rule was adopted which still holds—the stripes were permanently reduced to thirteen, to represent the original States, and the stars were henceforth to be as many as there should be States at the time.

Changes in the flag.



THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER
BETWEEN 1795 AND 1818.

The persuasions of Tecumseh and his brother, the Prophet, had raised up a war party among the Creek Indians, who dwelt mostly in southern Alabama. A large part of the nation, under the lead of a half-breed chief named Weathersford, or "Red Eagle," made war on their white neighbors and on the Indians of their own tribe who were disposed to be friendly to the United States. British agents supplied these Indians with arms. Weathersford, like Tecumseh, had a prophet to help him, who had been initiated into the office by

War with the Creeks.

Tecumseh's brother. Weathersford also imitated Tecumseh in discouraging the barbarities of the Indians, but he could not restrain them, and cruel outrages of torture and massacre took place.

Overthrow of the
Creeks; rise of
General Jackson.

General Andrew Jackson, then an officer of the Tennessee militia, led a force into southern Alabama, and, after overcoming the greatest difficulties and fighting many bloody battles, he broke the power of the Creeks, so that Weathersford himself entered Jackson's tent and surrendered. This was in April, 1814. Jackson, from being a commander of volunteers, was now made a major-general, and put in command of the troops in the Southwest.

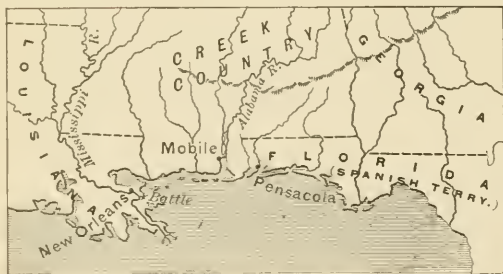
Jackson seizes
Pensacola.

Florida was at this time in the possession of Spain, which was at peace with the United States. But that power was secretly in sympathy with England, and English troops made Pensacola, in Florida, a base of operations against Mobile. With his usual fiery zeal, Jackson marched into Spanish territory, captured Pensacola, and dislodged the British. He then retired.

Jackson's victory
at New Orleans,
January 8, 1815.

Jackson hastened to New Orleans, which was soon threatened by a large British force. With an energy unsurpassed perhaps in modern history, he formed an army out of the men and material within his reach, and

built defenses against the British approach. He formed companies of free colored men, and he even took the convicts out of prison to make soldiers of them. After several prelimina-



ry battles, the English endeavored to carry Jackson's works by storm on the 8th of January, 1815. But Jackson's preparations were so thorough, that the enemy was repulsed with a frightful loss of twenty-six hundred men. The Americans lost but eight killed and thirteen wounded. Sir Edward Pakenham, the British commander, was killed, and the attack on New Orleans was abandoned.

When this battle was fought, peace had already been made, but the news had not yet reached this country. The treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, in Belgium, on the 24th of December, 1814. By the terms of this treaty, neither Great Britain nor the United States gained anything. The right of searching American vessels was not mentioned in the treaty; but the war had shown Great Britain that the right to search could no longer be maintained against a spirited nation, and American ships have never been searched from that time to this.

The war had caused a great deal of suffering and misery in this country, by the derangement of business, the destruction of property, and the loss of life. The news of the peace was hailed with delight.



MAJOR-GENERAL, 1812.

Peace of Ghent,
1814.

Suffering caused
by the war.

CHAPTER XLIV.

EXPANSION OF THE UNION.

LET us now go back to the period immediately following the adoption of the Constitution, and trace the birth of new States. The boundaries of the old States

Vermont admitted as the fourteenth State, 1792.

had been fixed by royal grants and by decisions made in England. But, as soon as the Revolution broke out, English control was at an end, and the spread of the Revolutionary spirit began to break down the authority of some of the States in parts of their dominions.

Vermont, 1791.

The people of what is now called Vermont had settled on their lands under grants made by the Governor of New Hampshire, supposing themselves to be in that State. From this fact the country was called "The New Hampshire Grants." But, as New York set up a claim to all lands west of the Connecticut River, and as the royal governor in New York wished to get rich from the fees allowed to him for granting lands, a claim was set up that the country west of the Connecticut and north of Massachusetts belonged to New York, and this was upheld by the authorities in England. But the people of the New Hampshire Grants were a race of hardy pioneers. They refused to pay for their lands a second time, and made successful opposition to the officers of New York. When the Revolution broke out, the "Green Mountain Boys" set up as an independent State, and called it Vermont—a name derived from the French for "Green Mountain." They even annexed the adjacent parts of New York and New Hampshire. By 1791 all their difficulties with other States were settled, and Vermont was admitted to the Union as the first addition to the "Old Thirteen."



GENTLEMAN'S RIDING-DRESS, EARLY PART OF THE CENTURY.

Kentucky, 1792.

Kentucky was a part of Virginia, but the continued Indian wars after the Revolution made it of great importance that the people west of the mountains should have a State government nearer than that at Richmond. After much trouble and many failures, Kentucky secured a

separation from Virginia, and in February, 1792, the new State was admitted to the Union.

The people of this country have generally emigrated in pretty straight lines to the westward. As Virginians broke over the mountains into Kentucky, so North Carolinians crossed into the valleys of Tennessee. The Tennessee settlers also had trouble with the parent State, and at one time set up a new State without authority, giving it the name of Franklin. This was given up, and the people returned to their allegiance to North Carolina until that State ceded its lands west of the mountains to the Union after the adoption of the Federal Constitution. This region, with other Southern territory, was set up in 1790 as a territorial government, and in 1796 was admitted into the Union, with the name of Tennessee.

Tennessee, 1796



HAIR DRESSED LIKE A
HELMET, ABOUT 1808.

These two States, Kentucky and Tennessee, had slaves. But the Ordinance of 1787, as we have seen in a previous chapter, did not allow slaveholding in the territory north of the Ohio River; so that all the States formed out of that territory were free States from the beginning. In the two years following the passage of this ordinance, twenty thousand people made their way down the Ohio River. But the horrible Indian wars checked the settlement of the country until after Wayne's great victory. Ohio was admitted to the Union February 19, 1803.*

Ohio, 1803.



TURBAN HEAD-DRESS,
WORN EARLY IN THIS
CENTURY.

It was more than nine years before another State was admitted. In 1812 the southern part of the great territory bought from France was admitted, under the name of Louisiana—the name at first given to the whole.

Louisiana, 1812.

* This is the correct date, according to late investigations.

Thus, when the War of 1812 began, the old Union of thirteen States had increased to eighteen.

Rapid expansion
after the war.
Indiana, 1816.
Mississippi, 1817.
Illinois, 1818.
Alabama, 1819.
Maine, 1820.



OPERA HEAD-DRESS,
EARLY IN THE CENTURY.

Debate over the
application of
Missouri.

The second war with England, and particularly the naval battles and the crushing defeat which Jackson inflicted on the British troops at New Orleans, made the United States respected in Europe as it had never been before. Emigrants began to flock to America. The peace with the Indians caused the Mississippi Valley, then called "the Far West," to fill up rapidly. In more than thirty years after the Revolution, only five States were added to the Union; but the next six States were admitted in six successive years—Indiana, next west of Ohio, in 1816. The defeat of the Creeks had opened the Southwest; and the new State of Mississippi, between Tennessee and Louisiana, was admitted in 1817. Illinois, west of Indiana, was admitted in 1818; and Alabama filled the gap between Mississippi and Georgia in 1819. In 1820 the District of Maine, long attached to Massachusetts, though separated from it geographically, was admitted as an independent State.

By 1820, therefore, all the territory east of the Mississippi, except the extreme northern portion, now included in Michigan and Wisconsin, had been made into States, and the State of Louisiana had been made out of the territory which had been bought from France. But, by this time, a new State on the west of the Mississippi River was knocking at the door of the Union. This was Missouri. Over the admission of this State there was a great debate, lasting through three sessions of Congress.

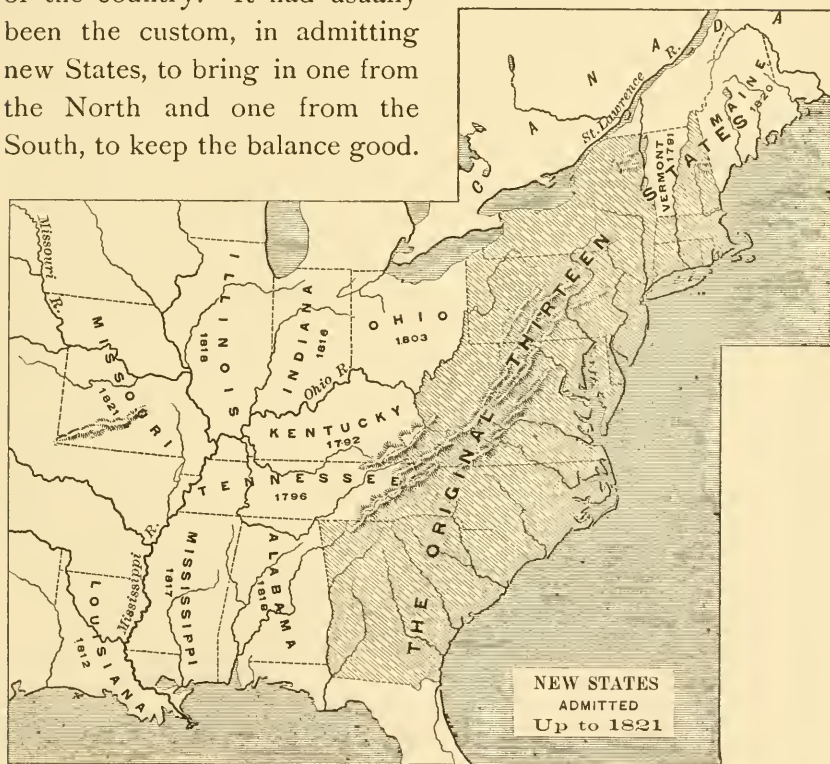
State of the
slavery question.

The cause of this debate, which was one of the most important in our history, was the fact that Missouri pro-

posed to come in as a slave State. The bringing of slaves into the United States had been forbidden in 1808. The States north of the southern line of Pennsylvania had all, before 1820, taken measures to free their slaves. The States south of the southern line of Pennsylvania, having much of their wealth in slaves, and cultivating crops that seemed to require their labor, had by this time mostly given up the thought of freeing their slaves. So that there were now two classes of States in the Union: free States and States having slaves. Each of these divisions of the Union was afraid that the other would get control of the country. It had usually been the custom, in admitting new States, to bring in one from the North and one from the South, to keep the balance good.



EVENING DRESS IN
JEFFERSON'S TIME.



A new phase of the slavery question.



CHILD'S DRESS IN THE
EARLY YEARS OF THE
19TH CENTURY.

The Missouri Compromise. Missouri admitted, 1820.



WALKING-COSTUME,
1800.

Growth of population.

But Missouri brought up a new question. According to the Ordinance of 1787, the States north of the Ohio had all come in as free States; but those to the south of that river had been allowed to enter as slaveholding States. The French province of Louisiana had been purchased as slaveholding territory, and the southernmost part of it had been admitted as a slave State. But now the question arose whether all the great region bought from France was to be added to the Southern side of the scale. Missouri was west of the Mississippi, and so far north as to seem to break into the line of free States.

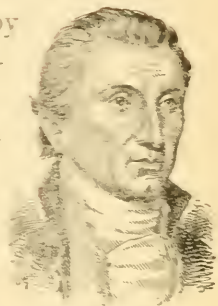
Most of the people at the North wished all the new territory made into free States: most of the people at the South wished to have it all open to settlement by Southern people with slaves. The question was finally decided by letting Missouri come in as a slave State, but slavery was at the same time forever forbidden in the rest of the territory north of the southern line of Missouri. Thus all the territory to the north and west of that State would be free. This was known as the Missouri Compromise. It was adopted in 1820, and Missouri was finally admitted in 1821. Henry Clay, the most famous of the orators and political leaders of the day, was very active in promoting this measure.

The "Old Thirteen" had now grown to twenty-four. The expansion of the nation in population and wealth was very rapid. In 1820 there were more than nine and a half million people in America. This was about three times as many as there were when the Revolutionary War was ended.

CHAPTER XLV.

FROM MONROE TO VAN BUREN.—RISE OF WHIGS AND DEMOCRATS.

A GREAT part of the expansion of the Union by the admission of new States, described in the preceding chapter, took place in the presidency of James Monroe, who was chosen to that office in 1816. Monroe was born in Virginia in 1754. As soon as he had graduated at William and Mary College, in 1776, he joined the Revolutionary army. He distinguished himself in several battles. He was minister to France and to England, and was Secretary of State when Madison was President. Monroe was a man of even temper, with very little party feeling, and with the greatest desire to be just and to act wisely. He was very popular, and his administration was called "the era of good feeling." The Federal party being by this time almost extinct, Monroe was re-elected in 1820 without any opposing candidate.



JAMES MONROE.

Monroe's presidency: the era of good feeling.

Next to the Missouri Compromise, of which we have spoken in the preceding chapter, the most remarkable event of Monroe's administration was the purchase of the Peninsula of Florida from Spain. French Protestants had made a settlement in Florida in 1564, but they were nearly all cruelly put to death by Spaniards in 1565, in which year the Spaniards founded St. Augustine, the oldest town in the present United States. In the Treaty of 1763, Spain ceded Florida to England. In 1783 it was ceded back to

Purchase of Florida from Spain, 1820.



SPANISH STANDARD.

Spain. Its purchase by our government was completed in 1821, and General Jackson, who had seized part of Florida during the War of 1812, and again in the Seminole War of 1818, having both times to relinquish it, was now sent to receive the new province from the Spanish governor.

Announcement of
the "Monroe
Doctrine," 1823.

In 1823 the countries in America to the south of us, which had been colonies of Spain, were striving to establish themselves as independent republics, and it was feared that an alliance of European nations would help Spain to subdue them. President Monroe, therefore, sent a message to Congress, in which he announced



MONROE'S HOME AT MONTPELIER, VA.

what has always since been known as "The Monroe Doctrine." This doctrine was, that the United States would object to any attempt on the part of European powers to "extend

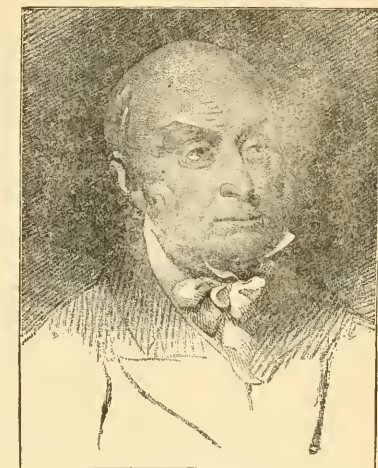
their system" of interference to "any part of this hemisphere." This was a declaration of independence for the whole of America. The United States still maintains the principle as stated by Monroe.

Retirement of
Monroe.

Monroe, who went out of office in 1825, was the last President connected with the Revolution. After leaving the presidency, he was very poor. He died in New York on the fourth day of July, 1831. He was the third President to die on the anniversary of the Declaration of Independence.

For want of any issue between them, both the old parties may be said to have gone to pieces, and new ones were not yet formed. There were four candidates for the presidency in 1824: Crawford, Jackson, Adams, and Clay. No one of these got a majority of the electoral votes, and the duty of electing a president devolved on the House of Representatives, which elected Adams.

John Quincy Adams, the sixth President, was the son of John Adams, the second President. He was born in Braintree, Mass., in 1767. He studied in France and Holland, and spent some time in Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and England, while yet a boy. He graduated at Harvard College when he was twenty years old, and studied law. He was at various times American minister at the courts of Holland, England, Prussia, and Russia, and was one of the commissioners to negotiate the treaty with England at the close of the War of 1812. He was Secretary of State in Monroe's Cabinet, and President of the United States from 1825 to 1829.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Sketch of J. Q. Adams.

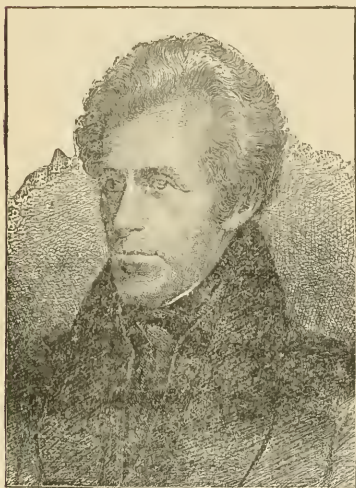


ADAMS HOUSES AT BRAINTREE, MASS., BIRTHPLACE OF JOHN ADAMS AND JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

The administration of Adams was a stormy and unpopular one. He was extremely honest and faithful,

Administration of the second Adams.

but, like his father, John Adams, he had no gift for winning friends. He could not bend to the people; his cold manners and his disregard for the opinions of others made him enemies, who succeeded in preventing his re-election. When John Quincy Adams quitted the presidency he did not leave public life, but sat in the lower house of Congress from 1831 to 1848, and this was the most brilliant part of his career. At eighty years of age he was still called "The old man eloquent." He died in the Capitol at Washington in 1848.



ANDREW JACKSON.

Election of Andrew Jackson in 1828.

In 1828 Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, was chosen President, taking office in March, 1829. He was re-elected in 1832, and held office in all for eight years. Jackson was born in North Carolina in 1767. He joined the Revolutionary army in South Carolina when he was but fourteen years old. He studied law and settled in Nashville, Tennessee. He was a member of the United States Senate and judge of the Supreme Court of Tennessee before he became distinguished as a soldier. His military achievements are told in a previous chapter. He was President of the United States from 1829 to 1837. As the first President that had risen from the ranks of the common people, he was very popular, and was supposed to represent the American ideas of the time. He was called "Old Hickory" by his admirers.

DRESS OF A LADY
IN JACKSON'S TIME.

Jackson was a man sincerely patriotic and honest, but self-willed and of a violent temper. He was the first President who turned out of government office the men who were opposed to him, appointing his own friends in their places. He vetoed a great many acts of Congress. He succeeded in breaking down the United States Bank, which, up to that time, had kept the public moneys. He vetoed almost all the measures proposed for the promotion of roads and other "internal improvements" by the General Government, holding

Character of
Jackson's admin-
istration.

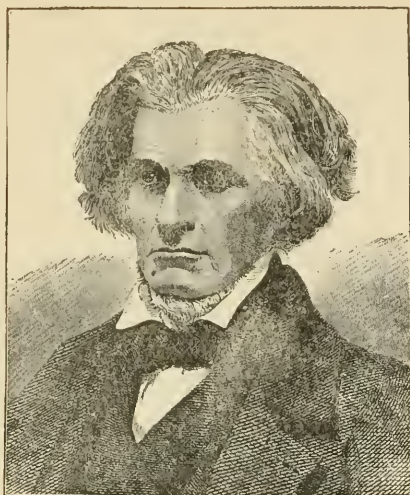


"THE HERMITAGE" OF JACKSON.

that the Federal Government had no right to tax the people for such enterprises. Jackson set his face against the doctrine advanced by John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, in his time, that a State could "nullify" a law of the United States. The business of the government with other nations was conducted during Jackson's administration with great spirit and ability, and the country was respected abroad. Jackson died in 1845.

As the moderate and peaceful administration of Monroe helped forward the dissolution of the old Federal and Republican parties, so the administration of a man of strong party feeling and of stormy temper like Jackson made new party divisions. Jackson loved his friends and hated all opponents. The country came to be divided into Jackson men and anti-Jackson men. The Jackson men claimed to succeed to the old Democratic-Republican party, and, retaining one of the names by

Rise of the
Whig and Demo-
cratic parties.



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

Differences between the parties.

cated the re-establishment of the United States Bank; the Democrats opposed it.

2. The Whigs were in favor of the building of roads and canals at the expense of the United States. The Democrats did not believe that the government of the Union should undertake "internal improvements," as roads and canals were then called.



HOME OF CALHOUN.

3. The Whigs generally wished to increase the power of the Federal Government; the Democrats were more in favor of what were called States' rights.

which it was known, they were called "Democrats." Those who were opposed to Jackson were called "Whigs," a name formerly applied in England to the party opposed to the arbitrary power of the king. The principal feature of American politics for about twenty years was the rivalry of the Whig and Democratic parties.

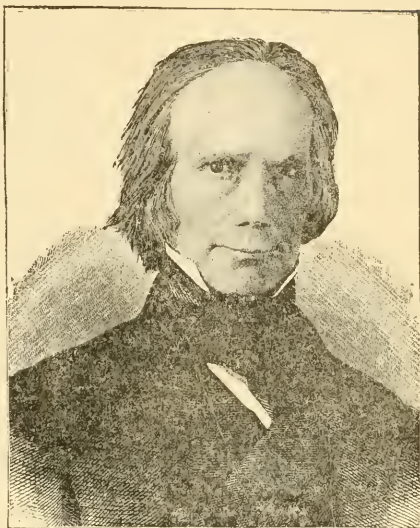
The main differences between the Whig party and the Democratic were:

1. That the Whigs advo-

The Democrats thought that, whatever power the Constitution did not expressly give to the General Government, could only be exercised by the States.

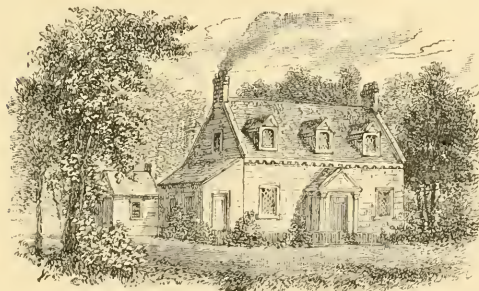
The great leaders of the Whig party were Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts. These were two of the greatest orators the country has ever known. Another orator of the first rank, John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, was on the Democratic side. He believed in the power of a State to "nullify" a law of the nation. But the Democratic party generally agreed

with Jackson, that the laws of the United States were supreme until the courts decided them unconstitutional. Clay, Calhoun, and Webster are often spoken of together. They were the three great statesmen of what is sometimes known as "the compromise period" of



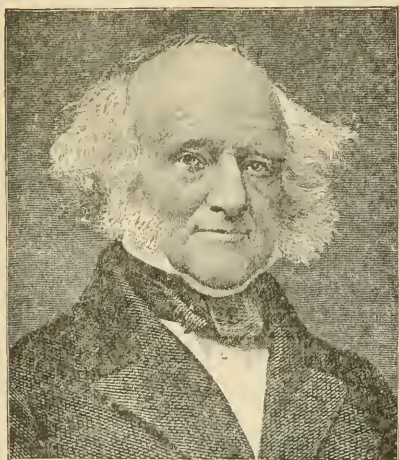
HENRY CLAY.

The great party leaders, Clay, Webster, and Calhoun.



BIRTHPLACE OF CLAY.

American history. Henry Clay was born in Virginia in 1777. He was a poor boy, and gained his education with difficulty. He settled in Ken-



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

greatest masters of the art of debate the country had known. Calhoun was a member of Monroe's Cabinet, Clay of John Quincy Adams's, Webster of Harrison and



DANIEL WEBSTER.

tucky as a young man, and long represented that State in the House of Representatives and the Senate. John C. Calhoun was born in South Carolina in 1782, and was graduated at Yale College. Clay and Calhoun were both bold advocates of the war with England in 1812. Webster, who was born in the same year with Calhoun, entered Congress in 1813, during the war. From this time these three men gradually came to the front as the

Fillmore's. But they were all three greatest in Congress. Each of them desired to be President, but all were disappointed. Calhoun was Vice-President for eight years, from 1825 to 1833. Clay was active in bringing about the Missouri Compromise, which Calhoun favored. Later than this Calhoun became the chief advocate of the doctrine that the States were sovereign, and that the Union was a compact of sovereign States. Clay and Web-

ster, on the other hand, were advocates of the authority of the Union. Clay was the author of the Compromise of 1850, which Webster favored. Calhoun died in 1850; Clay and Webster in 1852.

In 1836 Martin Van Buren, of New York, was nominated by the Democrats and elected President. He followed the policy of Jackson, but in a gentler way. He did not veto any bills passed by Congress. Van Buren was born at Kinderhook, New York, in 1782. He lived more than twenty years after his retirement from the presidency, dying in 1862.

Election of
Van Buren, 1836.



WEBSTER'S HOME AT MARSHFIELD.

CHAPTER XLVI.

THE STEAMBOAT, THE RAILROAD, AND THE TELEGRAPH.

SOON after 1800, certain changes began in ways of travel that have made modern life different from that of all preceding ages. Men in old times had jogged along day after day and week after week to make a journey of hundreds of miles on horseback, or they were jolted over bad roads in stage-wagons or carriages. Pack-horses or heavy wagons carried all the freight that went by land. Boats, rowed or pushed with poles, went slowly up and

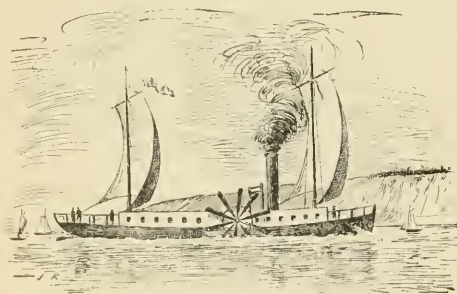
Modes of travel at
the beginning of
the 19th century.



ROBERT FULTON.

Improvement in ships made by Americans. Baltimore clippers.

Fulton's first steamboat, 1807.



FULTON'S FIRST STEAMBOAT.

The Erie and other canals.

down the rivers, carrying passengers and freight. Periaugers, with oars and sails, and other small vessels, plied up and down the coast, and all the ships at sea were propelled by sails.

In ships our people made great improvements. The "Baltimore clipper," a schooner with raking masts—that is, masts that slanted backward—was famous for its speed.

Our frigates gained advantages in the War of 1812 by being better sailers than the English men-of-war. At a later period the American "clipper-built ships" were the swiftest sailing-vessels in the world.

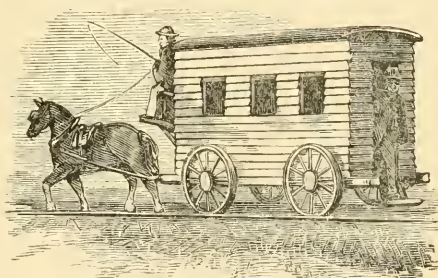
After the invention of the steam-engine in England, attempts were made in France, Scotland, and America to build boats that would go by steam. But Robert Fulton, an American, built the first really successful steamboat. This boat, the *Clermont*, was launched in 1807, and ran between New York and Albany, to the great wonder of all who saw her. Steamboats soon after took the place of keel-boats on the Western rivers, and they greatly aided in the rapid development of settlements in the new country.

Steamboats served for commerce and travel where there were rivers and lakes. But how should the traffic on the Western rivers and the Great Lakes be connected

with the rivers east of the Alleghany Mountains and the sea? Canals, long used in Europe, were thought of for this purpose, and Washington was much interested in a proposed canal from the Potomac to the Ohio River. But the first great canal in this country was that from the Hudson River to Lake Erie. The chief promoter of this work was De Witt Clinton, Governor of New York. It was eight years in construction. It was begun on the 4th of July, 1817, and in 1825 its completion was celebrated by a procession of boats from Lake Erie to the ocean, where Governor De Witt Clinton poured a keg of Lake Erie water into the sea, as a sign of their union. This canal, by opening a trade with the West, made New York the greatest city of the United States.

But, for the more mountainous country of the Middle States, a great "National Road" for wagons was planned and built from western Maryland as far as the western part of Indiana. The extension of railroads soon rendered it of no importance as a national work.

The "National Road."



THE FIRST RAILROAD PASSENGER-CAR IN ENGLAND.

But the greatest change of all, in the life of Americans, was made by the railway, which was introduced from England. The first railroads were merely tracks of iron bars, on which little cars, loaded with coal, were drawn from the mines. The first railway in the United States was but two miles long, and was used only for hauling stone. The cars were drawn by horses. The first

Railroads introduced about 1830



FIRST STEAM PASSENGER-TRAIN IN AMERICA.

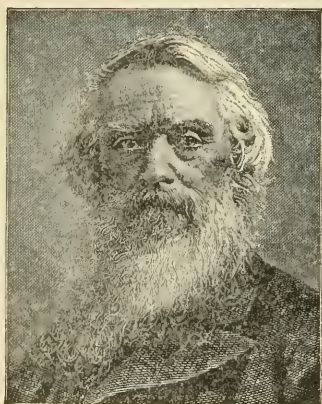
passenger-train in America was run on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad in 1830, but the cars were drawn by horses the first year. The extension of railways was very rapid; they changed America more than any other country, because here the distances are so great. We have almost as many miles of railway as all the world besides.

American improvements in railroads.

The first passenger-cars were merely stage-coaches on the rails, and in other countries they still keep something of this form. In America large, airy cars for passengers were early introduced, and the parlor-car, the sleeping-car, the hotel-car, and the dining-car are all of American origin, and are little used elsewhere. The street tramway, or horse-railroad, and the elevated railways for rapid travel in cities, were first used in this country.

Invention of the electric telegraph.

The electric telegraph, in its present practical shape, was the invention of an American artist, S. F. B. Morse.



S. F. B. MORSE.

First electric telegraph.

In old times people sent messages by objects shown on high ground, by lights displayed at night, or by bonfires kindled on the hills. Even the wild Indians sent intelligence across the plains by waving a blanket over a fire and thus making a "smoke-signal." In 1835 Morse set up and worked a telegraphic wire by electricity. But it was seven years later before he could persuade Congress to appropriate money to set up the first line.

During the years of struggle to get his invention tried, Morse was so extremely poor as often to be without food for a whole day together. In 1842 Morse had

gone to his lodgings in despair on the last night of the session of Congress. There were a large number of bills in advance of the one for promoting the telegraph. But the next morning the daughter of Commissioner Ellsworth called at his lodgings and informed him that a bill had passed granting \$30,000 to build an experimental telegraph line. When the first line was built from Washington to Baltimore, in 1844, this young lady was allowed to dictate the first dispatch, which she did, sending the words, "What hath God wrought!" The first public news dispatch brought to Washington the intelligence that James K. Polk had been nominated for President. Silas Wright, a Senator, who was put in nomination for Vice-President at the same time, sent a message declining the nomination. But the members of the convention would not believe that news could go to Washington and back in so short a time, and so they waited to hear by other means before they would believe that the message was genuine.

The introduction of the railway and the invention of the telegraph have completely changed the conditions of our life. In former times it was weeks after a presidential election before the result could be generally known. So wide is our country to-day that, if intelligence had to be carried, as formerly, by stage-coaches and post-boys on horseback, it would take months for an important event to be known in remote regions of the country. Now, every important bit of news is known from end to end of the country in a few hours. Railroads, too, have made distant places seem near together, and distributed the comforts of civilization to the most remote parts of the country.



THE WAY THAT LITTLE
GIRLS DRESSED WHEN
GRANDMA WAS A CHILD.

Change in modes
of living produced
by railroad and
telegraph.



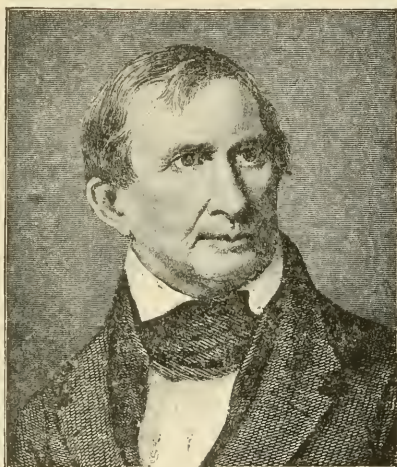
A BONNET OF 1830.

CHAPTER XLVII.

ANNEXATION OF TEXAS.—BEGINNING OF THE
MEXICAN WAR.

The "hard times"
of 1837.

DURING the administration of Van Buren, various causes brought on severe financial distress in 1837. The "hard times" were attributed by the people to the hostility of Van Buren to the banks.



WILLIAM H. HARRISON.

Harrison elected
President, 1840.
His death.

Sketch of Harri-
son's life.

In 1840 General William Henry Harrison was nominated by the Whigs against Van Buren. The canvass of that year was one of wild excitement. The Whigs, to please the popular feeling of the time, boasted that their candidate lived in a log-cabin and drank hard cider. They drew log-cabins on wheels in their processions. It is known in the history of American politics as the "Log-cabin and Hard-cider Campaign." Harrison was triumphantly elected, and was inaugurated amid wild rejoicings. But he died in one month after the beginning of his term.

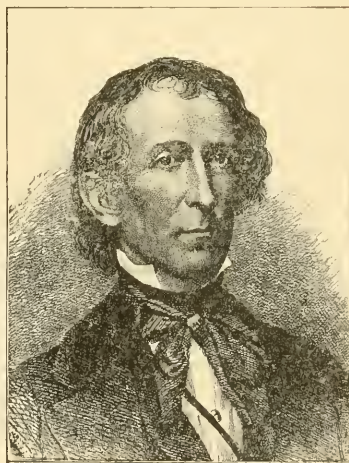
Harrison was born in Charles City County, Virginia, in 1773, and was a son of Benjamin Harrison, Governor of Virginia. He was educated at Hampden-Sidney College, and entered the army as an ensign in 1791. Harrison was aide-de-camp to General Wayne in his campaign

in Ohio, and was afterward Secretary of the Northwest Territory, delegate in Congress, the first Governor of Indiana Territory, and Superintendent of Indian Affairs. His selection for the presidency was due to the fame won in his conduct of the war against Tecumseh, and his admirable and fortunate career in the second war against England. When nominated for the presidency, he held the humble office of clerk to the county court.

The Vice-President who had been elected at the same time with Harrison was John Tyler, who was born in Virginia in 1790, and who had been a member of Congress and Governor of his native State. On the death of Harrison, Tyler succeeded to the presidency, according to the Constitution. He did not sympathize with the views of his party regarding the bank question, and, when Congress passed a bill for its re-establishment, he vetoed the measure. This act brought on him the anger of the Whigs and a suspicion of bad faith. His whole administration was passed in dissension with the party that elected him, and when he left office he was not popular.

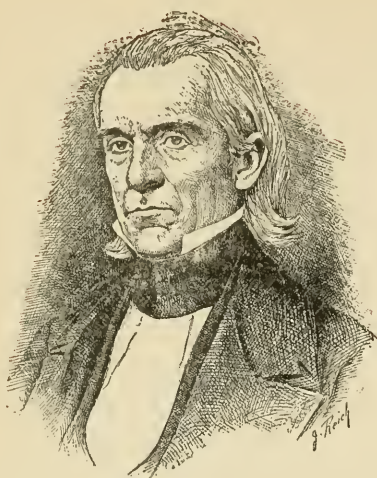
In 1844 the Whigs nominated the eloquent Henry Clay for President; the Democrats nominated James Knox Polk, of Tennessee. Polk, who advocated the annexation of Texas was elected. Polk was born in North Carolina in 1795, and he was the first President that was a native of the country west of the Alleghany Mountains. He

Tyler's administration.



JOHN TYLER.

Polk elected President, 1844



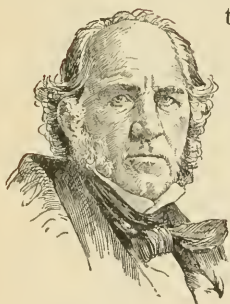
JAMES KNOX POLK.

had been Speaker of the national House of Representatives; and was nominated in preference to Van Buren because the latter opposed the annexation of Texas.

The most important event of Tyler's administration was the passage of a bill for the annexation of Texas, which was accomplished just before Tyler gave up office to Polk. Texas had been one of the States of the Republic of Mexico. A large number of Americans had settled on grants of land there. These came into collision with the Mexican government, which was arbitrary and oppressive, and an armed revolution broke out in Texas in 1835.

Career of Houston.

The Texans were commanded by General Sam Houston. Houston was born in the mountain-region of Virginia in 1793. He got little education, and showed from the first the vein of adventurousness which ran through his career. When the family removed to Tennessee, he spent much time with neighboring Indians, and was adopted by one of the Cherokees. He enlisted in the army, and attracted Jackson's attention by his bravery in his great battle with the Creek Indians. He was promoted in the army, but resigned, studied and practiced law, and was twice elected to Congress. Becoming unpopular, he followed his Cherokee father to his new home on the Arkansas River, adopted the Indian dress, and lived three years in the tribe, visiting Washington



SAM HOUSTON.

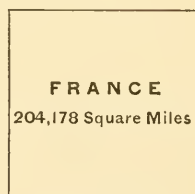
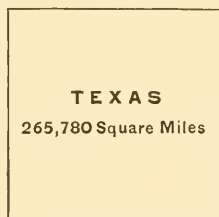
in the interest of the Indians. In 1832 he went to Texas, then a Mexican State, and in the Texan Revolution he became commander-in-chief.

Santa Anna marched against the Texans, and at the taking of Fort Alamo he put to death all opposed to him, and he also executed five hundred men at Goliad. Houston prudently fell back until Santa Anna was compelled to weaken his force by detachments. At last, with seven hundred and fifty men, Houston surprised the main division of the Mexicans, about eighteen hundred strong. The Texans went into battle crying, "Remember the Alamo!" and Santa Anna's army was destroyed and he made prisoner.

The Texan
Revolution.

Texas gained a virtual independence by this battle and Houston became President of the new republic, which remained independent for about ten years. The people of Texas were largely from the United States, and in 1845 Texas was annexed to the United States by treaty, and admitted to the Union. In territory Texas is about the size of France.

Texas annexed
and admitted.



The annexation of Texas was strongly opposed by

some people in the United States because its laws allowed slavery, and it would be an addition to the power of the slaveholding States. Its annexation was also opposed by many who feared a war with Mexico, for that country had never given up its hope of reconquering Texas.

Opposition to the
annexation of
Texas.

There were already other grounds of quarrel with Mexico. In the violent revolutions in that country

Grounds of quar-
rel with Mexico.

American citizens had been robbed of a great deal of property by those claiming authority. As one Mexi-



can government quickly overthrew another, the United States tried in vain to get a payment of what was due to our citizens. And even if Mexico had consented to the annexation of Texas, there would have remained a dispute about its true boundary. Our government supported the claim of Texas, that the Rio Grande was the true border, while

Mexico would not allow that the State of Texas extended farther to the west than the Nueces River.

Beginning of the Mexican War.

When General Taylor occupied this disputed territory, in 1846, the Mexicans attacked his troops, and thus hostilities began. With a force much inferior to that of the Mexicans, Taylor fought and won the battle of Palo Alto, and afterward attacked and defeated the Mexicans in a strong position at Resaca de la Palma.



MEXICAN FLAG.

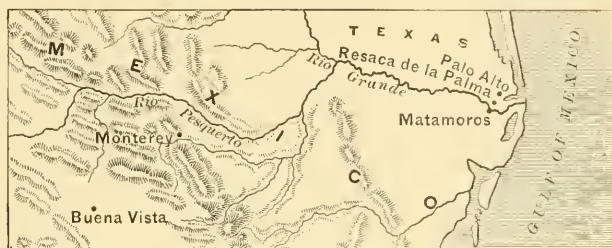
Capture of Monterey.

These defeats drove the Mexicans across the Rio Grande. In May Taylor crossed the river and took possession of the city of Matamoros. But the Mexicans showed no disposition to make peace. Having received re-enforcements, Taylor marched on the fortified city of Monterey, which was defended by more

than ten thousand Mexicans. Taylor's force was smaller. The place was captured on the 24th of September, 1846, after several days of hard fighting.

General Taylor now advanced farther into Mexico, but the United States government changed its plans, and orders were sent to Taylor to detach all but five thousand of his troops to the assistance of General Scott, who was to command in a new campaign, which was to be made into Mexico by way of Vera Cruz. Thus weakened, General Taylor took up a strong position at Buena Vista, where he was assailed by twenty thousand Mexicans

Battle of Buena Vista.



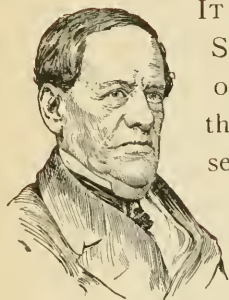
under Santa Anna. After two days of the most courageous fighting, and after running the greatest risk of an overwhelming defeat, the little American army achieved the most brilliant victory of the war—a victory which made Taylor the idol of the country, and afterward brought about his election to the presidency.

By this time the war had shown the immense superiority of the American troops, the most of whom were volunteers. The Mexicans often fought bravely, but the frequent revolutions and petty civil wars in Mexico had demoralized officers and soldiers. The arms of the Mexicans were also out of date. The Americans of that time were brave and enterprising, and a little too fond of military glory. They fought with great boldness and steadiness, and their early victories made them expect success.

Character of the American troops.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE CLOSE OF THE MEXICAN WAR, AND THE ANNEXATION OF NEW TERRITORY.



SANTA ANNA.

Persistence of the
Mexicans.

Conquest of New
Mexico.

It is probable that the government of the United States expected at first to conclude the war after one or two battles by Taylor on the east side of the Rio Grande. But, if the Mexicans proved themselves as soldiers inferior to the troops which marched against them, they showed themselves stubborn in their refusal to treat for peace after repeated defeats. Mexico was so filled with factions, and one Mexican government was so soon turned out by another, that no ruler felt himself strong enough to take the responsibility of making a humiliating peace.

The war had been begun with the view of securing Texas, and of enforcing the claim of that State to the territory east of the Rio Grande, as well as to reclaim the damages due to citizens of this country. But many of the American people at that time were eager for more territory, and the object of the struggle was presently changed. Soon after war was declared, Colonel Kearny was sent to conquer the thinly settled northern portion of Mexico and Upper California. New Mexico was conquered without resistance in August, 1846. A civil government, subject to the United States, was immediately established there.

Conquest of Cali-
fornia.

A much more important acquisition was California, which was taken from Mexico before Colonel Kearny could get there. The name of this State while it be-

longed to Mexico was Alta California, or, in English, Upper California; Lower California still remains a part of Mexico. Upper California was first visited by Spaniards in 1542. Sir Francis Drake, the same who took Raleigh's colony back to England in 1585, visited Upper California in 1579, calling it New Albion, which means New England. It was nearly two hundred years later, in 1769, when Catholic missionaries from Spain made the first settlement of white people in that country. There were only about ten thousand white inhabitants in the whole province when it was seized by the United States in 1846. In the summer of that year California settlers from the United States set up a movement for independence and tried to establish a government, known now as "The Bear Flag Republic." They were aided by Captain Fremont (afterward a general), who was in the province as the leader of an exploring expedition. United States naval officers on the coast, expecting a war between this country and Mexico, raised the American flag on shore, and after some fighting the province remained in American hands and was definitely annexed at the close of the Mexican War.

The sparsely settled portions of Mexico known as California and New Mexico had now come into the hands of the United States, and it became a main object with the government to close the war in such a way as not to surrender the great territory thus acquired.

Object of the war changed.

When it became evident that General Taylor's victories in northern Mexico only wounded the vanity of the Mexicans without subduing them, it was resolved to land a force at Vera Cruz and march into the interior.

Scott's expedition planned.

It was thought that the Mexicans would readily make peace when their capital was threatened.

Vera Cruz taken.

General Scott, at that time commander-in-chief of the American armies, took charge of this expedition. He

landed on the 9th of March, 1847, and immediately laid siege to Vera Cruz. The city surrendered on the 27th of the same month.

Marching into the interior, General Scott found the Mexican general, Santa Anna, opposing him at a strongly fortified position. On the 18th and 19th of April, 1847, Scott fought the battle of Cerro Gordo, completely defeating and dispersing the Mexican army. But the more the



Battle of Cerro Gordo.

Mexicans were defeated, the more unwilling were they to make peace with an invading army.

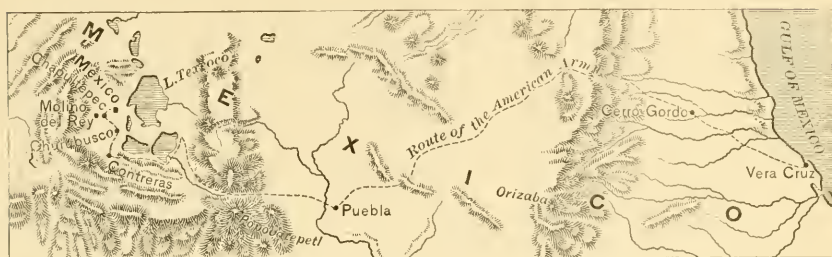
Difficulty of Scott's march.

One of the most difficult undertakings that ever fell to the lot of an army now became necessary. The American force of ten thousand men had advanced into the very heart of Mexico. It had to subsist on the country, and to attack the Mexicans, now rallying in great numbers, in strongly fortified positions.

Battles about the capital. Surrender of the city of Mexico.

Arrived in the region of the capital, General Scott fought and won the battle of Contreras on August 20, 1847, and the battle of Churubusco on the same day. After this battle there was an armistice, but attempts at negotiation failed, and on the 8th of September Scott defeated the Mexicans at Molino del Rey. On the morning of September 13th the American troops carried the

fortress of Chapultepec by storm, going over the works with scaling-ladders and fighting a hand-to-hand battle within the castle walls. The city of Mexico was attacked



SCOTT'S CAMPAIGN FROM VERA CRUZ TO THE CITY OF MEXICO.

at the same time, and the next day it was evacuated by the Mexicans and occupied by General Scott.

Although the Mexicans had lost every considerable battle from the beginning of the war to the conquest of the capital, their national pride made them very loath to conclude a peace. In February, 1848, nearly five months after the capture of the capital, a treaty was signed, by which all the territory of New Mexico, as then constituted, and Upper California, became United States territory. Our government, however, agreed to pay fifteen million dollars to Mexico, and to discharge the claims of our own citizens against that country.

Peace concluded,
February, 1848.

General Winfield Scott, whose victories brought the Mexican War to a close, was born in Petersburg Virginia, in 1786. He entered the army in 1808. His brilliant services



WINFIELD SCOTT.

General Scott.

in various battles during the War of 1812 had raised him by the close of that contest to the rank of major-general. In 1841 he became general-in-chief of the army. His conquering march from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico showed high military ability. He ran for President in 1852 and was defeated. When the civil war began he was seventy-five years old, and he was obliged by infirmities to yield the chief command to younger men. General Scott died in 1866, at the age of eighty.

Opinions about
the war.

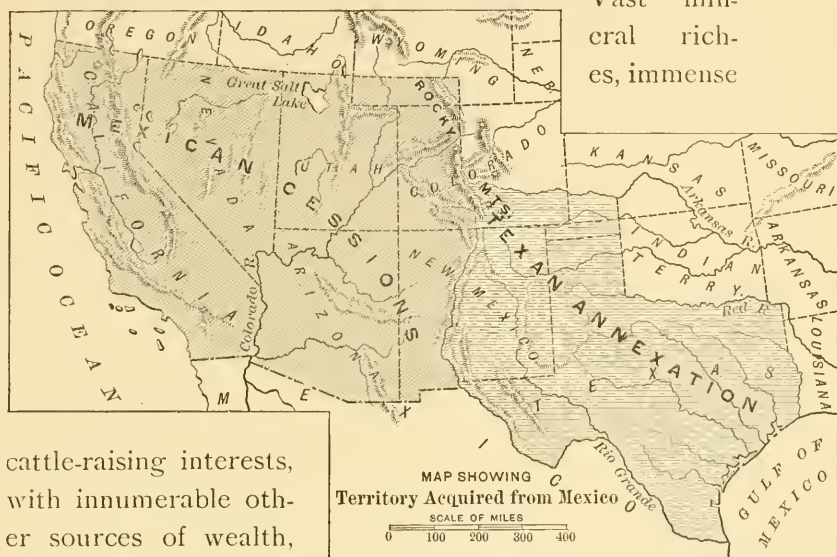
There has always been a difference of opinion in the United States about the Mexican War. Even at the present time opinions are divided as to whether it might not have been wisely avoided. It cost us the lives of thousands of brave men who fell in fighting on a foreign soil, or perished by the heat of the climate and the diseases of the country, and it caused much misery to innocent people in Mexico. No doubt, the ignorance and prejudice prevailing in that country at the time, and the frequent overthrow of one government and the setting up of another, made it difficult to treat with Mexico without war. From the time that American settlers became a dominant element in Texas, a collision with the Mexicans was probably inevitable.

The territory ac-
quired from Mex-
ico.

The territory acquired from Mexico, first and last, was larger than the United States at the close of the Revolutionary War. It comprised all the region now included in Texas, California, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah, the greater part of Colorado, and a part of Wyoming. The acquisition of this territory has exerted a most important influence upon the recent history of the country. By throwing into the hands of an energetic people the

gold and silver mines of that region, it has added so largely to the world's stock of the precious metals as to affect profoundly the commerce of the globe.

Vast mineral riches, immense



cattle-raising interests, with innumerable other sources of wealth, have been added to the United States. This annexation opened to us the trade of the Pacific, and added immeasurably to the variety of climate and production within the bounds of the United States. The unexpected political results which followed will be traced hereafter.

Before the Mexican War broke out, the United States was already reaching out to the Pacific. Some discoveries had been made in that quarter as long ago as 1791. A certain Captain Gray, from Boston, went to the Pacific coast to trade for furs in 1787. These he took to China, and brought back a cargo of teas from there to the United States in 1790. He was the first man to carry the flag of the new American Republic round the world. In 1791 he

Discovery of the Oregon country.

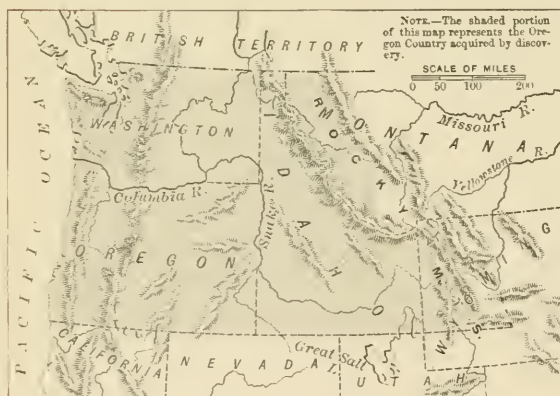
went to the Pacific again, and in 1792 entered before any other navigator the mouth of a large river which he called the "Columbia," after the name of his ship. This gave the United States a claim to what was called the "Oregon country"—Oregon being another name for the Columbia River.

Explorations by
Lewis and Clark.

The province of Louisiana, which was purchased from France in 1803, included the territory drained by the Missouri. Captains Lewis and Clark were sent by President Jefferson in 1803 to ascend the Missouri and cross the Rocky Mountains to the Columbia. These brave explorers, after the greatest dangers and hardships, spent a winter on the Columbia, and returned to St. Louis in 1805, after an absence of two years and four months from the

settlements of civilized people.

Our claim to the Oregon country rests chiefly on the exploration by Captain Gray and that by Lewis and Clark. When the Mexican War began, we were engaged in a dispute with Eng-



The Oregon dis-
pute

land regarding our right to this territory. This dispute was settled in 1846 by a treaty which gave the United States all south of latitude 49°.

After the admission of Missouri in 1821, no new States were taken into the Union for fifteen years. Arkansas was admitted as a slave State in 1836, and was balanced

by Michigan, which came in as a free State in the following year. Two States in the extreme South were admitted in 1845—Florida, which we had acquired from Spain, as we have seen, and Texas, which had been a part of Mexico and then an independent republic. But in 1846 Iowa was admitted, and in 1848 the extreme northern State of Wisconsin. In 1850 Congress admitted California, the first State on the Pacific coast, which was then like a new world to Americans.

Admission of
Arkansas, 1836;
Michigan, 1837;
Florida and
Texas, 1845;
Iowa, 1846; Wis-
consin, 1848; and
California, 1850.

CHAPTER XLIX.

THE QUESTION OF SLAVERY IN POLITICS.

THE annexation of Texas opened a new chapter in American history. It involved us in a dispute which produced the Mexican War. That brought a large addition to our territory. It became necessary to settle the question of slavery in the annexed territory, and this opened the slavery agitation anew. Both of the old parties were after a while split asunder by the debate, and the question of slavery or no slavery in the Territories became the leading issue in our politics. In sixteen years from the annexation of Texas, this chain of causes had plunged the country into the most tremendous civil war in the history of the world. In just twenty years the war had ended in the entire abolition of slavery in the United States. Thus, the annexation of Texas brought about unforeseen results which changed the history of the continent.

The annexation of Texas sets in motion a chain of events that end in the civil war.

Anti-slavery agitation opposed.

After the adoption of the Missouri Compromise in 1820, it had been an accepted maxim in our politics that the slavery discussion should not be reopened. William Lloyd Garrison, Wendell Phillips, and a few others who insisted on advocating the abolition of slavery, were frowned upon as unpatriotic. They were severely persecuted even by Northern people, who feared that their agitation of the subject might destroy the Union.

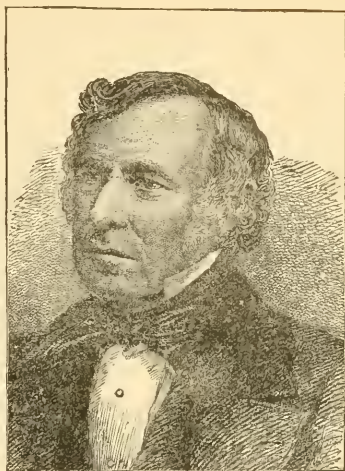
The Wilmot Proviso.

But, when the arrangement made by the Missouri Compromise was once disturbed by annexing Texas and other Mexican territory, the political struggle between the free and slave States began anew. In 1846, during the Mexican War, a bill was introduced in Congress looking to a peace with Mexico, to be made by a purchase of territory. Mr. Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, moved to add a proviso that slavery should never exist in the territory thus acquired. This was known as "the Wilmot Proviso." The proviso was finally rejected, but it opened the question of freedom or slavery in the new region before the Mexican War was ended, and the agitation thus introduced once more into politics did not cease while slavery existed.

Election and death of President Taylor. Fillmore succeeds to the presidency.

The first effect of the excitement was to render certain the defeat of the Democratic party in the election of 1848. A large number of Democrats and a smaller number of Whigs seceded from the old parties and formed the Free-Soil party, which desired to shut slavery out of the Territories. The Democrats nominated General Cass; the Whigs nominated General Zachary Taylor, the hero of Buena Vista, for President. The Free-Soilers nominated ex-President Martin Van Buren. Taylor was elected.

General Taylor was the twelfth President of the United States, and of these first twelve Presidents seven were born in Virginia, which got the name of "the Mother of Presidents" from that fact. Zachary Taylor was born in Virginia in 1784, but he was carried to Kentucky in his infancy. He got a commission in the army when he was twenty-four years old. He gained his first distinction by his gallant defense of Fort Harrison in the war against Tecumseh's Indians. In a war waged against the Seminole Indians in Florida he defeated the savages in a severe battle at Okeechobee. His fame rests chiefly on his achievements in the Mexican War. After serving for a year and four months, President Taylor died, and was succeeded by Millard Fillmore, of New York, the Vice-President.



ZACHARY TAYLOR.

Sketch of Taylor.

But while the country was excited over the presidential election, an event took place in the newly annexed Territory of California that gave fresh violence to the slavery debate. Particles of gold were discovered in the Sacramento River in 1848. The California mines proved to be the richest in the world. In 1849, a great rush of people to the new Territory set in. Ships loaded with passengers sailed around Cape Horn to seek their fortunes in a land of gold. Long trains of emigrants in ox-carts wended their way across the almost unknown region between the Missouri River and the

Discovery of gold in California.

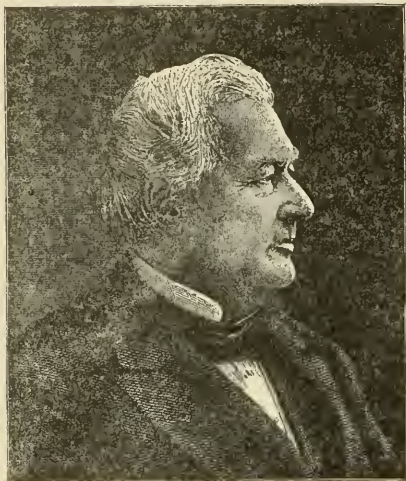
Pacific slope, a region at that time occupied by bands of warlike Indians.

California a free State.

In 1849 the people of California set up a State government without authority from Congress, and asked to be immediately admitted to the Union. As part of the new State was south of the Missouri Compromise line, and as

its Constitution forbade slavery, the slave States were opposed to this addition to the number of free States.

Meantime the growing anti-slavery sentiment at the North made it harder to reclaim run-away slaves, who escaped in large number to the free States. The Southern States complained of this as a violation of the Constitution, which provided that all such fugitives should be sent back. At the same time many people in the Northern States



MILLARD FILLMORE.

Fugitive slaves and the slave-trade in the District of Columbia.

complained that the public traffic in slaves in the city of Washington was highly improper in the capital of a free country.

The Compromise of 1850.

The veteran statesman Henry Clay had always been a skillful compromiser of difficulties. He now arranged and carried, with the help of Webster and others, the measures which have since been known as "The Compromise of 1850." By this compromise slavery was to be continued in the District of Columbia, but the buying and selling of slaves there was to be abolished. At the same time a new and severe law was made for the return

of fugitive slaves, which was no longer left to the States, but intrusted to United States officers. California was admitted as a free State, and New Mexico organized as a Territory without slavery. The leading statesmen of the country imagined that these measures, which were adopted after long debate, and which gave something to each side, would forever put to rest this dangerous question.

There was indeed a lull in the excitement. The little Free-Soil party, which had helped to defeat the Democrats in 1848, cast fewer votes in 1852 for its candidate, John P. Hale, than it had cast for Van Buren in 1848. The Whigs nominated General Winfield Scott, the conqueror of the city of Mexico, but divisions on the slavery question had broken the power of that party, and Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, the Democratic candidate, was elected by a large majority.

Election of
Franklin Pierce

Pierce was born in New Hampshire in 1804. He was a lawyer, a member of the House of Representatives, and a United States senator. He served in the Mexican War as a brigadier-general under Scott. He was a man of correct life, but of mediocre ability.



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

The Compromise of 1850 did not prove to be, what its promoters called it, "a finality"; that is, an end of the debate. The fugitive-slave law exasperated the Northern people. Every negro claimed under it excited the sympathy of the people and awakened opposition to slavery. Every arrest of a fugitive slave was made the

Opposition to the
fugitive-slave
law.

occasion of anti-slavery speeches, and so great was the feeling that in many places it became impossible to execute the law.

Effect of "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

The anti-slavery sentiment at the North was quickened and diffused at this time by the publication of the novel entitled "Uncle Tom's Cabin." It was calculated to excite sympathy for slaves, and it at once reached a circulation that has hardly an equal in the history of literature.

Dissatisfaction at the South.

The South was equally dissatisfied. The violent censures of anti-slavery speakers and writers excited bitter feelings. It soon became evident also that about all of the territory remaining to be admitted into the Union would, in the nature of things, come in as free States. It was seen that this would put the slave States in the minority, and destroy what was called "the balance of power" between the two sections.

Efforts to secure new territory at the South. The filibusters.

Attempts were therefore made to purchase the island of Cuba in order to make new States from it. But Spain refused to sell Cuba. The desire of our people for new territory had been greatly inflamed by their recent acquisitions, and threats were made to seize Cuba by force. Expeditions were secretly fitted out in the United States to promote insurrections in the island, but they came to nothing. Several attempts were made by "filibusters" to seize territory from the weak states in Central America. These were continued until 1860, when the chief filibuster, William Walker, was captured and executed by Central American authorities.

CHAPTER L.

BREAK-UP OF OLD PARTIES.—APPROACH OF THE
CIVIL WAR.

THE Whig party was passing into decrepitude. The measures it had advocated—the United States Bank, the tariff, and internal improvements—were no longer of the highest importance in the eyes of the people.

Decay of the
Whig party.

The Whigs had been badly beaten in 1852. Those opposed to the Democratic party felt obliged to take new ground. A party was founded in 1853 which proposed to keep foreigners out of office and to make them wait a longer term before becoming citizens. This was styled the "American party." Its members were organized in secret lodges, and it carried many elections by surprise. The public was much excited by the mystery attending the action of this organization. To all questions about its doings the members of the order answered, "I don't know." From this arose the name "Know-nothing," which was commonly applied to the party. Know-nothingism spread rapidly for two or three years, but died as quickly as it had come into life, for the slavery question took a new form, which left no room for any other debate.

The American, or
Know-nothing,
party.



STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS.

This new form was brought about by the bill organizing the Territories of Nebraska and Kansas, introduced in 1854 by Senator Douglas, of Illinois. This bill repealed the Missouri Compromise, which had been adopted in 1820, and had been always afterward looked upon with almost as great reverence as the Constitution itself.

The Kansas-Ne-
braska Bill.

By that compromise slavery had been forbidden in all new territory north of latitude thirty-six degrees and a half. Kansas and Nebraska were on the north side of this line. The "Nebraska Bill," as it was called, repealed this restriction, and left it for the settlers in the new territory to decide the question of slavery for themselves. This was called "Squatter Sovereignty" in the discussions of the time.

Formation of the Free-Soil and then of the Republican party.

The excitement regarding the repeal of the Missouri Compromise exceeded any ever before known in this country. Many people in the North and some at the South regarded it as an act of bad faith. Most of the people of the South claimed that they had an equal right with free-state people to take their property of every kind to the new Territories. Both sides became exceedingly violent. As President Pierce favored the Nebraska Bill, those Whigs who took the same side generally went over to the Democratic party, while those opposed to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, whether Whigs or Democrats, united, and, with the old Free-Soil party, formed an "Anti-Nebraska party." This presently took the name "Republican," but it is not to be confounded with the old Republican party of the days of Jefferson.

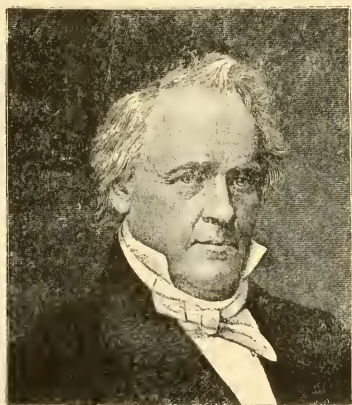
Violent collisions in Kansas.

Meantime the great struggle between the two sections had been transferred to the new Territory of Kansas. This lay directly west of Missouri, and a strong effort was made to secure it, both by the North and the South. Emigrants poured in from both sides of the line between the free and the slave States. Societies were formed at the North to promote emigration, and in Missouri to keep emigrants from the free

States away. Many free-state men were stopped and turned back on the Missouri River. The free-state people and the slave-state people now came into collision on the Kansas prairies. Men from Missouri assisted the Southern party. Rival governments were formed. Kansas soon became the scene of a violent struggle. Midnight assassinations and mobs were common, and something like open war broke out from time to time. The men from the Northern States soon had a majority, and asked admission to the Union. The bloody feud in Kansas had by this time produced the greatest excitement in Congress and convulsed the whole country.

While the people were in this state of passionate excitement about the struggle in Kansas, the presidential canvass of 1856 came on. The Democrats nominated James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania; the new Republican party nominated John C. Fremont, who had become known as a daring explorer in the Western plains, and who had taken part in the conquest of California. The American, or Know-nothing, party nominated ex-President Millard Fillmore. Buchanan, the Democratic candidate, was elected. Fillmore got but eight electoral votes, Fremont one hundred and fourteen, and Buchanan one hundred and seventy-four. The election showed that the people were interested in nothing but the settlement of the slavery question. No presidential election had ever before turned wholly or chiefly on this question.

Buchanan elected
President, 1856.



JAMES BUCHANAN.

Sketch of
Buchanan.

James Buchanan, the fifteenth President, was born in Pennsylvania in 1791. He was a successful lawyer, a member of Congress, United States minister to Russia, member of the Senate, and Secretary of State in the Cabinet of President Polk. He was minister to England during the administration of Pierce. In 1854 he was one of the signers of a document known as the "Ostend Manifesto," by which three foreign ambassadors of the United States assembled at Ostend, in Belgium, threatened that their Government would seize the island of Cuba by force if it could not be purchased from Spain. Buchanan lived until 1868.

Dissolution of the
Union feared.

The division of parties on the slavery question caused men to forebode a division of the Union. Every effort to settle the question once for all had failed. The Missouri Compromise, the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, had all failed to quiet the agitation of the slavery question. Two forms of society existed under the same Government which were incompatible with each other. In such a conflict one or the other must give way and go down.

The Dred Scott
decision.

It was thought that, if it could be settled by a decision of the Supreme Court, from which there is no appeal, everybody would acquiesce, and the matter would be ended. The Supreme Court of the United States at length attempted to settle the question of slavery in the Territories, and thus take it out of politics. In the spring of 1857, in the case of a negro named Dred Scott, who sued for his freedom on the ground that his master had taken him to a free State, the Supreme Court decided that the African whose ancestors had been slaves had no rights under the Constitution, and that Congress

had no power to forbid slavery in the Territories. So far from settling the question, this decision proved to be oil on the fire. The North now feared that slavery would be made national by a new decision of the Supreme Court, which might establish the right of the citizen of one State to convey slave-property to another.

While the Northern people were alarmed over the Dred Scott decision, an event occurred which carried the excitement at the South to a still higher pitch. In 1859 John Brown, who had borne a conspicuous part as a free-state man in the murderous feuds of the Kansas struggle, seized the United States armory at Harper's Ferry, in the mountains of Virginia, and undertook to liberate the slaves. As he had but eighteen men under his command, he was soon overcome. He was tried and executed, but this raid alarmed the South more than the Dred Scott decision had the North. People in the Southern States began to fear that the Northern people generally were trying to arm the slaves for the murder of their masters.

John Brown's
raid, 1859.

The excitement over the subject of slavery had already divided into two parts nearly all the great religious denominations, and had destroyed the Whig party. In 1860 it divided the Democratic organization. The majority in the convention of that party nominated Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, the author of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. The Democrats who adhered most strongly to the South put forward John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois. The Constitutional Union party, as it was called, which desired to make peace between the angry sections, nominated John Bell, of

Lincoln elected
President, 1860.

Tennessee. Lincoln was elected. We have now reached the point where the angry debate between the North and the South was at last about to break into a long and terrible war.

Increase in the number of free States. Minnesota admitted, 1858; Oregon, 1859; and Kansas, 1861.

One element in the political jealousies of this excited time was the increase of free States. Minnesota was admitted in 1858, Oregon in 1859, and Kansas soon after the election of Lincoln, in 1861. There was now no territory left at the South from which new slave States could be made.

CHAPTER LI.

HOW THE GREAT CIVIL WAR BEGAN.

The movement of secession.

THE excitement at the South had reached a pitch that rendered an effort to break up the Union inevitable. From the moment that Lincoln's election was known, active preparations were made in what were called the "cotton States"—South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas—to dissolve the Union of States.

Difference of opinion about State sovereignty.

From the beginning of the government there were two opinions in regard to the power of a State under the Constitution. The Federalists thought that nearly all the powers of government were vested in the United States authorities, but the Jefferson Republicans held that a State retained a considerable share of independence. At a later period the chief advocate for the sovereignty of the State had been John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, who thought a State could declare an act of Congress

null—that is, not valid within its bounds. In 1832 the State of South Carolina declared the tariff law null, and forbade its citizens to pay the duties. This was called nullification; but President Jackson, who did not believe in the doctrine, threatened the nullifiers with the army and navy of the United States. Clay introduced a compromise bill, and the matter was settled without a collision.

The States-rights doctrine—as the belief in the right of a State to act independently was called—had found a good many adherents in the South, and in the present excitement the extreme Southern States claimed that, by exercising the right of the individual State, they might lawfully secede from the Union. South Carolina first passed an ordinance of secession on December 20, 1860. By the 1st of February each of the seven “cotton States” had declared itself separated from the Union and independent.

The seven “cotton States” pass ordinances of secession, 1861.

Meantime the recollection of the success of the Missouri Compromise in 1820, and of the Compromise of 1850, led some members of Congress to try to settle the troubles once more by compromise. Many plans for changes in the Constitution and laws were proposed in Congress, but all without avail. A “Peace Convention,” suggested by Virginia, assembled in Washington on the 4th of February, 1861. There were delegates from all but the seceded States. John Tyler, ex-President of the United States, was president of this convention. But the plan of compromise suggested by the Peace Convention failed, like all others. The time for compromises had gone by, and it was beyond the ingenuity of man to prevent a collision between the two sections which had opposed each other in politics, and were now about to try

The Peace Convention meets in vain.

their strength and endurance in the deadly struggles of the battle-field.

The period of
confusion.

It was a time of great trouble and division. Many people at the North sympathized with the secession movement; and others were opposed to any forcible measures to retain the Southern States in the Union. Many people at the South, on the other hand, were in favor of maintaining the Union. Even the Cabinet of President Buchanan was divided. Some of the members of the Cabinet desired to help the seceding States to which they belonged; the other Secretaries considered secession rebellion, and urged that force should be used to suppress it. The President, for his part, did not believe that the States had a right to go out of the Union, but he also did not believe that he had any authority to compel them to stay in. So everything was in confusion, debate, and perplexity in that awful winter, during which a storm was gathering, the force and extent of which nobody could divine.

Anderson in Fort
Sumter.

All eyes were turned to Charleston harbor, where thousands of excited Southerners faced a little garrison of seventy men under command of Major Robert An-

derson. On the evening of the day after Christmas, Anderson suddenly moved his garrison in the dark from the weak Fort Moultrie into the stronger Fort Sumter. A ship sent with supplies and re-enforcements was fired on by the South Carolina batteries and turned back.



On the 4th of February, the day that the Peace Convention met in Washington, there assembled in Montgomery, Alabama, a convention of delegates from the seceded States. This convention proceeded to form a new government, under the title of "The Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, was elected President.

Jefferson Davis, who held the office of President as long as the Confederacy existed, was born in Kentucky, June 3, 1808. He was graduated at West Point in 1828. He left the army in 1835, and became a member of Congress ten years later. In the Mexican War he was colonel of a Mississippi regiment, and was distinguished for courage and coolness in action. He served several years as United States Senator from Mississippi, and was Secretary of War in President Pierce's Cabinet. He again entered the Senate in 1857, from which he resigned when Mississippi seceded in 1861.



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

On the 4th of March, Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated President of the United States. Measures were soon taken to re-enforce and supply the garrison of Fort Sumter. But the ships sent were detained outside the bar by a storm, and, as soon as their coming was known, all the Confederate batteries about the harbor opened on Fort Sumter, which, after a while, replied. For thirty-six

The bombardment of Fort Sumter.



CONFEDERATE FLAG OF 1861.

hours the bombardment continued, setting fire to the wood-work of the fort and pounding its walls to pieces. At the end of this time Major Anderson, whose provisions were nearly exhausted, agreed to evacuate the fort.

The war begun.

Curiously enough, nobody was killed on either side in this bombardment. But the attack on Fort Sumter changed the whole situation. Doubt was at an end on both sides. Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas, forced now to take one side or the other, soon joined the Confederacy. On the other hand, the Sunday morning on which Major Anderson marched out of Fort Sumter saw the Northern States also almost of one mind. Men were wild with excitement, and political par-



ties were forgotten. It was not for Congress or

the President to decide on peace or war—the war burst uncontrollably from the pent-up passions of the people. Perhaps so wild a burst of feeling was never before known to pervade such multitudes.

In response to a call from the President, nearly a hundred thousand men enlisted in the Northern States in three days. Trains loaded with volunteers began to move toward Washington. Money and ships without stint were offered to the government by the rich. Regiments marching through the streets of towns were greeted everywhere by the shouts of the people, who sometimes wept as they cheered them.

The rush to arms.

The Southern people were equally enthusiastic and unanimous—equally resolved and hopeful. The young men of the South eagerly took up arms, and poured like a torrent into Virginia. The great civil war had burst upon the country in all its fury.

The South in arms.

CHAPTER LII.

CONFEDERATE VICTORY AT BULL RUN.—THE FIRST WESTERN CAMPAIGN.

WE are to remember that, though the war was caused by slavery, it was not at first about slavery, but about secession. "Our States are sovereign, and have a right to secede when they think they have reason," was the Southern view of the matter. "You are a part of the Union, which forms but one nation, and to break up the Union is rebellion," was the Northern view. But the passions excited by the long and bitter debate over questions relating to slavery lay at the bottom of the struggle. Neither side dreamed of the weary and bloody conflict which was to follow. Each expected to settle the matter

The question of Union or secession.

in two or three battles. Both of them found out what stubborn work it was to fight against Americans.

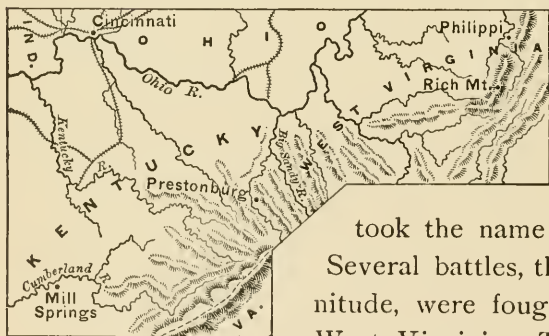
Advantages and disadvantages.

The Southerners were naturally more military than the Northern people; they were generally accustomed to the saddle and the use of fire-arms. Many of the Northern men, especially those of the Eastern States, had to learn to load and fire a gun after they went into the army. For a long war the North had several advantages. Money, trade, and the mechanical facilities for producing arms, ships, clothing, and other military necessities, belonged in a superior degree to the North. It had also the advantage of numbers; the South the advantage of fighting in defense of its own ground, and of moving on shorter lines.

The prompt movement from the North secures the border region.

The divided sympathies of the people in the border States, and the quick sending forward of volunteers from the North by many railroads, prevented Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri from seceding. In the western part of Virginia, where the slaves were few, the

Union sentiment was strong, and this region, in 1862, separated itself from Virginia and formed a new State, which



took the name of West Virginia.

Early battles in West Virginia.

Several battles, though of no great magnitude, were fought to secure control of West Virginia. The Union armies here were commanded by General George B. McClellan. A small battle at Philippi was won by the Union troops, and a more considerable engagement at Rich Mountain

(June 11, 1861), lasting about an hour and a half, gave the possession of West Virginia to the Federal Government.

The failure to secure the border region was a serious loss to the Confederacy, for this was a land of Indian corn, most valuable for feeding of armies. The South thus lost also the Ohio and Potomac Rivers—the best line of defense.

The war had opened with several small actions, such as the seizure of ports and navy-yards by the Confederates, the attack on Union troops by a mob in Baltimore, several skirmishes in different parts of the country, and

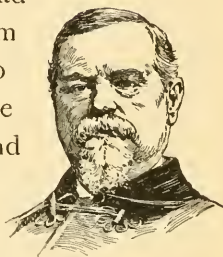
The South loses the border.

Opening movements.



FIRST BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

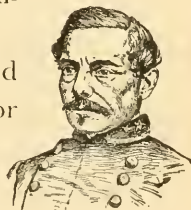
battles in the mountains of Virginia. The Confederates had moved their capital from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia, and the first important battle-ground would lie between the two capitals. So sure were the people of a short war, that most of the Northern volun-



IRVIN McDOWELL.

teers had been called out for only three months, and it was thought necessary to fight a battle before their time should expire. The people and newspapers at the North were clamoring for a forward movement, and the commanders were despised for their caution.

General McDowell moved toward Richmond, and on the 21st of July, 1861, the battle of Bull Run, or Manassas, was fought, chiefly by raw troops on both sides. Generals Joseph E. Johnston and Beauregard commanded the Confederates. The battle was a se-



P. G. T. BEAUREGARD.



CHARGING AN EARTHWORK.

were one and the losses were heavy, but the Confederates were re-enforced at the right moment, and the Union army was at length entirely routed, and fled back to Washington in confusion.

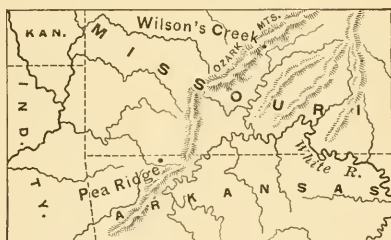
Confederates win the first battle.

The early struggle in eastern Kentucky was a little war by itself. Besides minor skirmishes, Colonel Garfield, afterward President, defeated the Confederate leader Humphrey Marshall in the little battle of Prestonburg on the 17th of January, 1862. Another sharp conflict took place at Mill Spring two days later, in which General George H. Thomas was victorious over the Confederate general Zollikoffer, who was killed in the engagement.

Early struggle for Kentucky.

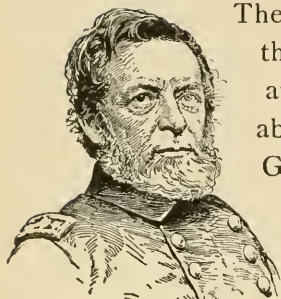
The battles in Missouri and Arkansas proved a side campaign that had for its aim the securing of this State, in which opinion was much divided for the Union or the Confederacy. The Governor of Missouri took sides with the Confederacy. In the hard-fought battle of Wilson's Creek, August 10, 1861, General Lyon, of the United States army, was

Side campaign in Missouri.



killed, and his troops retreated after the fight. The Confederate general Price attacked Lexington, Missouri, on the 18th of September following, and captured nearly three thousand Union soldiers. In November following, General Pope, of the United States army, by several skillful movements, intercepted and captured large bodies of recruits on their way to join the Confederate army. A severe battle fought at Pea Ridge, in northwestern Arkansas, on the 6th of March, 1862, finally

secured Missouri to the Union, by preventing the Confederate forces from re-entering that State.



ANDREW H. FOOTE.

Grant takes Fort
Henry and Fort
Donelson.

The first important movement after Bull Run was the campaign which broke the Confederate line at the West, and gave the Mississippi River above Vicksburg to the control of the Federal Government. Ulysses S. Grant, who had already begun to show good military abilities, moved against Fort Henry, on the Tennessee River, in co-operation with the gunboat fleet under Commodore Foote. Grant and Foote captured Fort Henry February 6, 1862. The Tennessee

River here runs near to the Cumberland River. On the Cumberland, only about twelve miles from Fort Henry, was the Confederate Fort Donelson. After a stubborn battle, in which the Union loss was twenty-three hundred men, this fort was also surrendered, and with it fifteen thousand Confederate troops. This broke the center of the Confederate line of defense in the West, and forced them to fall back from Nashville and other points.

Fall of Island
No. 10.



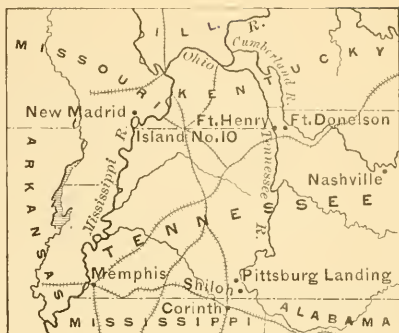
JOHN POPE.

General Pope, supported by gunboats, now moved against the Confederates who blocked the Mississippi at New Madrid and Island No. 10. New Madrid was evacuated, but, in order to capture Island No. 10, Pope, who was on the west side of the river, must cross below the island and cut off its supplies. As the batteries on the island commanded the channel, he had to dig a canal across a bend in the river in order to get transport-boats below the island, so as to ferry across the Mississippi. It took nineteen days to cut this canal. Gunboats could not get through it, and the transports

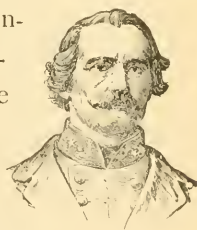
could not cross without their protection. Two gunboats were run past the batteries of the island at night. Cut off on all sides, the island was compelled to surrender, with nearly seven thousand men.

The object of the Union troops in attacking Island No. 10 had been to take a step toward getting possession of the Mississippi River, so as to get the use of this great highway, and at the same time separate the Confederacy into two parts. For the same purpose the forces under Grant, after taking Fort Donelson, pushed southward up the Tennessee River, and a movement was planned to take Corinth, in the northern part of Mississippi. Many railroads centered at this place. The Union army, under General Grant, was gathered near Corinth, at Pittsburg Landing, in Tennessee, on the banks of the Tennessee River. Grant had from thirty to forty thousand men, and had no thought of a powerful enemy near at hand. The Confederate general, Albert Sidney Johnston, rapidly collected a strong army, and determined to crush the force at the Landing before Grant could be re-enforced by the arrival of another army under General Buell.

The battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, began on Sunday morning, April 6, 1862. Johnston undertook to attack in such a way as to surprise and drive Grant's army back between the river and a creek. The loss on that dreadful Sunday was great on both sides. The Confederates, with desperate energy, drove Grant's men



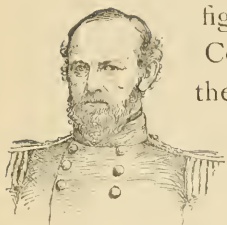
Grant moves toward Corinth



A. S. JOHNSTON.

The great battle of Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing.

back until Pittsburg Landing was almost in their possession. But their general, Albert Sidney Johnston, was killed. Buell's army began to arrive, and the Union troops were re-formed in the night. The second day's fighting was also extremely severe. The exhausted Confederates under Beauregard at length retired from the field. This was the first great battle of the war.



D. C. BUELL.

Corinth evacuated by the Confederates.

The Union army, when it had a little recovered from the terrible shock and had been recruited, moved forward against Corinth, which, after a siege, was evacuated by Beauregard on the 30th of May. The consequence of this success was, that the whole Mississippi River, as far down as Vicksburg, came into possession of the Federal authorities.

CHAPTER LIII.

THE WAR AT THE EAST.—FROM BULL RUN TO GETTYSBURG.

McClellan commander-in-chief.

GENERAL SCOTT, who was commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States at the beginning of the war, was old and infirm, and he soon retired. McClellan, by his well-planned battle at Rich Mountain, in western Virginia, had shown capacity, and he was now called to command the forces in front of Washington. General McClellan was born in Philadelphia in 1826. He was an industrious student and carried off honors in school. He was graduated at West Point, and distinguished himself by valor and good conduct in the Mexican War. In 1857

he resigned from the army, to accept a place as chief engineer of the Illinois Central Railroad, and later was president of another railroad. At the beginning of the war he was appointed major-general of volunteers. On his accession to the Army of the Potomac he spent eight months in organizing and disciplining his army.

Instead of moving directly against the Confederate forces lying in front of him, McClellan thought best to take his army by water to Fortress Monroe, and from there to go up between York River and James River toward Richmond. The land between these two rivers forms a peninsula; this is therefore known as the Peninsular campaign. From the beginning the campaign was unfortunate in many ways. Part of the troops which McClellan expected to receive were detained for the defense of Washington. The Confederates forced him to spend a month in the siege of Yorktown. Yorktown was evacuated on the 5th of May. McClellan's troops pursued the retiring Confederates, and fought the battle of Williamsburg that day. The Confederates retreated at night toward Richmond.

Peninsular campaign begun.
Battle of Williamsburg.



GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN.

The Confederate general, Thomas J. Jackson, was operating in the Valley of Virginia. He now made a series of rapid manœuvres, by which he defeated or confused several bodies of Union troops and alarmed the authorities at Washington, so that McDowell's troops at Fredericksburg were held back from joining McClellan

Battle of Fair Oaks.

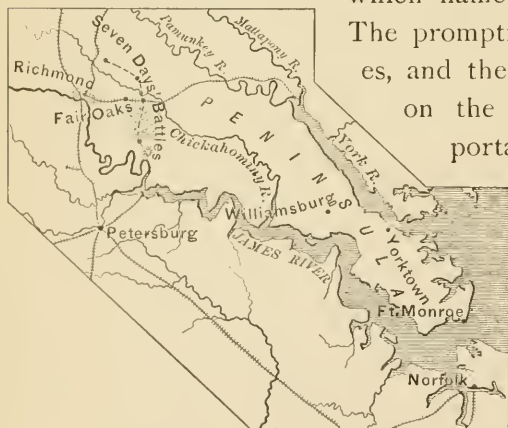
before Richmond. Meantime the Confederate forces defending Richmond, under General Joseph E. Johnston, fought the battle of Fair Oaks by attacking one wing of McClellan's army while it was divided into two parts by the Chickahominy River, and won a partial success. Johnston having been wounded in this battle, General Robert E. Lee succeeded him. Jackson now slipped away from the Valley of Virginia, and suddenly brought his force down by rail to assist Lee in the struggle against McClellan.



"STONEWALL" JACKSON.

Thomas Jonathan Jackson.

General Jackson, who helped to derange McClellan's plans, was a native of Virginia, born in 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1846. In the Mexican War he was twice brevetted for meritorious conduct. He resigned from the army in 1852, and became a professor in the Virginia Military Institute. He entered the Confederate service at the beginning of the war. During the first battle of Bull Run he resisted a charge with so much steadfastness that he gained the title of "Stonewall" Jackson, by which name he will be known in history. The promptness and rapidity of his marches, and the obstinate courage he showed on the battle-field, made him an important factor in the war.



After the arrival of Jackson and the failure of his own re-enforcements, McClellan withdrew his troops to the James River. About this time the two armies were engaged every day; these

conflicts are known as the Seven Days' battles. For a whole week the Confederates beat upon McClellan's army. Its months of discipline and drill enabled it to fall back slowly before Lee's furious onslaught.

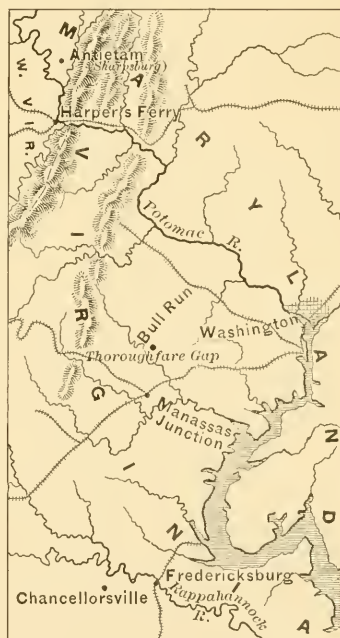
The Seven Days battles.

But McClellan's first plan had failed. The President had lost confidence in McClellan's ability to overmatch such generals as Lee and Jackson. A new commander must be found. Pope, whose energy and success at Island No. 10 had given him reputation, was put in command of the army in front of Washington, and the troops on the James River were brought back by degrees to re-enforce him.

Pope in command at Washington.

But Pope proved not to be equal to the Confederate generals in his front. Jackson made a great circuit around through Thoroughfare Gap, and cut off Pope's communications with Washington. The Union troops fought bravely on the old Bull Run battle-field (August 29 and 30, 1862), and Pope showed his usual energy, but his enemy had beaten him in skillful manoeuvres, and his army fell back disheartened to the neighborhood of Washington again, where it was a year before.

McClellan, who, in spite of the unfortunate outcome of his campaign, had won the confidence of the men in the Eastern army, was now again put in command of it. Lee followed up his advantages by crossing the Potomac.



Great battle at Antietam, in Maryland, 1862

Meantime he sent a force and captured Harper's Ferry, with eleven thousand Union soldiers. On the 16th and 17th of September McClellan and Lee fought one of the severest battles of the war at Antietam Creek, near Sharpsburg, in Maryland. On the 18th Lee withdrew across the Potomac, and McClellan followed slowly, and again made the Rappahannock his line.



A. E. BURNSIDE.

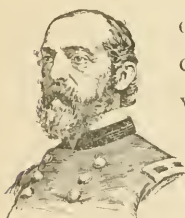
Burnside succeeds McClellan, and is defeated at Fredericksburg.

But McClellan had lost the confidence of his superiors, and he was now finally removed. General Burnside was next put in command of this unlucky army. McClellan had been thought too cautious, but Burnside was rash. He crossed the Rappahannock at Fredericksburg, and assailed the Confederate works on the heights back of the town on December 13, 1862. His army was again defeated with great slaughter.

Hooker succeeds Burnside. Defeated at Chancellorsville, 1863.

Burnside was relieved, and General Joseph E. Hooker was tried. In the spring of 1863 General Hooker fought what was called the Chancellorsville campaign, where, like those who had gone before, he was outmanœuvred by Lee's generalship and Jackson's marching. On May 6th Hooker recrossed the Rappahannock.

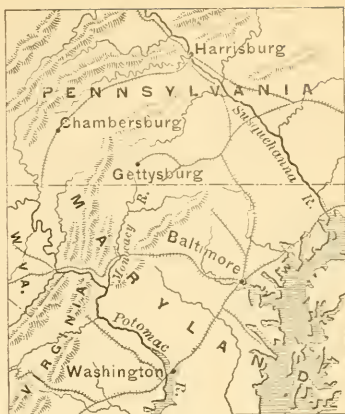
Meade and Lee fight a great battle at Gettysburg.



GEORGE G. MEADE.

Lee soon after crossed the Potomac, and pushed his veteran army into Pennsylvania, striking for Harrisburg. Hooker was relieved from commanding the army opposed to Lee, and General George G. Meade succeeded him. Near Gettysburg, in Pennsylvania, the vanguards of the two great armies met on the 1st day of July, 1863. The people of the North and those of the South were filled with fear and anxiety as this battle approached. The courage of the troops on both sides was simply marvelous. On the second day of the battle the Confederates carried works at

both ends of the Union line. The next day the Union army recovered the lost ground on its right. The Confederates then made a tremendous assault, known as Pickett's charge, and broke through the center of the Federal army, but they were soon driven back defeated. Lee's army rested a day and then retreated. Lee had lost about one third of his men; Meade had lost a good deal more than a fourth of his. In all, about forty-eight thousand had been killed, wounded, or captured in this awful struggle between two veteran and resolute armies.



CHAPTER LIV.

VARIOUS OPERATIONS IN 1862 AND 1863.

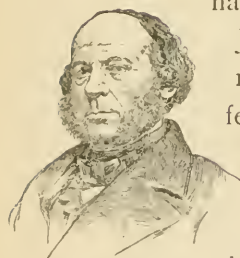
IN order to give a clear account of the campaigns Introductory. about Washington and Richmond, down to the battle of Gettysburg, we have put that branch of the war into one continuous story in the preceding chapter. Many things of the highest importance were happening elsewhere, while McClellan and the generals who came after him were wrestling with Johnston, Lee, and Jackson for Washington and Richmond.

At the very moment that McClellan was getting ready to move his army to the Peninsula, there took Battle of the iron
clads at Fortress
Monroe.

place a famous naval battle in the waters of Hampton Roads, near Fortress Monroe. The Confederates, having seized the Norfolk Navy-Yard, had changed the hull of the steam-frigate Merrimac into an iron-plated steam-ram, and named it the "Virginia." On the 8th of March, the Virginia, or, as she is generally spoken of, the Merrimac, came out from Norfolk into Hampton Roads, and after a battle sank the sloop-of-war Cum-



berland. The frigate Congress was next disabled and afterward burned, for nothing built of wood could make any impression on this iron monster, whose sloping sides resisted cannon-balls as a bird's feathers shed the rain. The loss of life on both the vessels that were destroyed was great. The steam-frigate Minnesota, which was aground, was only saved from destruction by the coming of night. It was expected that, with the morning, the iron ship would complete the sinking of the shipping in Hampton Roads, and then go to the Potomac and attack Washington city. But, at midnight, there arrived from New York, all unexpected, a little iron-plated vessel, named the Monitor, of a new pattern, invented by John Ericsson. The next morning, when the Merrimac came out again, the Monitor successfully defended the Minnesota, until the Confederate ram, having met its match, retired.



JOHN ERICSSON.

The chief peculiarity of the Monitor was a revolving turret on top, with walls eight inches thick, made of iron plates. It had openings for two large guns, which could be fired in any direction, and which threw shot weighing one hundred and sixty-six

pounds with a charge of fifteen pounds of powder. The vessel sat low in the water, and was described by the Confederates as a Yankee cheese-box on a raft. Vessels of this type proved themselves superior to any others used during the civil war. The conflict in Hampton

Construction of
the Monitor.



THE MONITOR AND THE MERRIMAC.

Roads changed the construction of war-ships the world over, for it proved that wooden ships were of no use against iron ones.

At the beginning, many of the Northern people, who were very much in favor of the war to preserve the Union, had been opposed to the abolition of slavery. But, as the struggle went on, the feeling at the North against slavery, as the cause of the war, increased. On the 22d of September, 1862, just after the battle of Antietam, President Lincoln announced that, if any portion of the country should remain in arms against the government on the first of the following January, he would declare the slaves in that part of the country free.

Preliminary
emancipation
proclamation

The Emancipation Proclamation and its results.

On the 1st of January, 1863, a proclamation declared the slaves free in those regions yet in arms against the United States, "as a fit and necessary war-measure for suppressing said rebellion." Certain portions of the South, already subjected to the military authority of the United States, were excepted in the proclamation, and every effort was made to keep the declaration of freedom within the limits of the President's constitutional powers, by confining it, at least in appearance, to strictly military purposes. But its effect was to pledge the country to the extinction of slavery if the Confederacy should be overthrown, and in this light it becomes a point of departure in the history of the United States.

Capture of New Orleans.

We have seen that the first object of the Union armies in the West was to wrest the Mississippi River from the Confederate forces who held it by powerful



FARRAGUT.

works at Vicksburg and by forts below New Orleans. While the armies were operating above, the river was attacked from below. On the 18th of April, 1862, the bombardment of the forts below New Orleans was begun by a fleet of gunboats, and the firing lasted for five days, but the forts held out. At two o'clock on the afternoon of the 24th, Farragut, in command of the fleet, took the bold course of running his ships past the forts. The Confederates resisted by a tremendous fire from the forts and from their ships. They also tried to burn the United States vessels by floating

down upon them fire-rafts and burning steamboats loaded with cotton, and they attacked them also with an iron-clad ram, named the *Manassas*. But, notwithstanding this resolute defense, Farragut got by the forts, with some loss, and captured the city. The forts afterward surrendered.



While Halleck dallied after taking Corinth, the Confederate general Bragg took thirty-five thousand men by rail to Mobile, and thence northward on another line and seized

Chattanooga. We shall see that it afterward cost the Union troops some of the most desperate battles of the war to dislodge the Confederates from this stronghold.

Bragg at Chattanooga.

From Chattanooga Bragg moved north and invaded Kentucky, and tried to reach Louisville, on the Ohio. A foot-race took place between the two armies, but Buell and the Union troops reached Louisville first. After a severe battle at Perryville, October 8, 1862, Bragg once more retreated to Chattanooga.

Bragg and Buell in Kentucky, 1862

Part of the Union army was yet at Corinth. While Bragg and Buell were manœuvring in Kentucky, the Confederates, under General Van Dorn, attacked this place on the 3d and 4th of October, 1862, and by the most desperate fighting drove the Union army from line to line until a part of the attacking force actually gained the town. But the resistance of the troops under Rosecrans was as stubborn as the attack was resolute, and Van Dorn's assaults were repulsed.

Battle of Corinth.



BRAXTON BRAGG.

Hitherto in many operations the Confederates had the advantage in generalship. They were especially

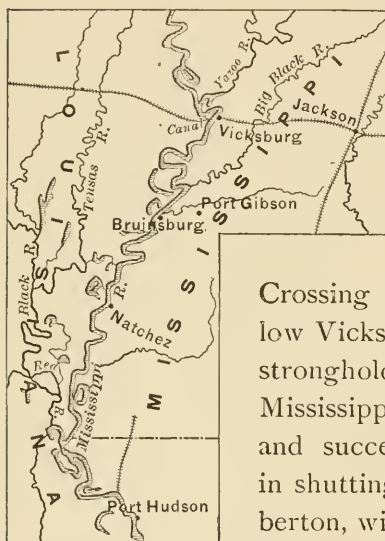
Grant tries many devices against Vicksburg.

strong in this regard in the Virginia campaigns. But the Union armies of the West were gradually coming under the control of General Grant, a man of restless vigor and tremendous power of endurance under difficulty and repulse. All his first attempts to take Vicksburg failed. Plan after plan was tried. A ditch was dug across the bend of the river opposite Vicksburg, in the hope that the river would change its bed, but this

failed. Grant tried to open other channels to reach the water-courses in the rear of the city. From time to time, when one plan failed, he resorted to a new device.

At last gunboats and transports were run past the batteries.

Crossing the Mississippi at Bruinsburg, below Vicksburg, Grant got in the rear of that stronghold. He took Jackson, the capital of Mississippi, and by a series of movements and successive battles he at last succeeded in shutting up the Confederate general Pemberton, with his entire army, in the fortifications of Vicksburg. Grant twice tried to



Siege and surrender of Vicksburg, 1863.

carry the fortifications by assault, but the Confederate soldiers were well-seasoned veterans behind strong works, and the assaults proved costly failures. The Union army, therefore, settled down to a regular siege of the place. On the 4th of July, 1863, the day after the battle of Gettysburg in Pennsylvania, the half-starved garrison of Vicksburg, numbering about thirty-two thousand, surrendered to General Grant. During the siege

the inmates of the town had been forced to endure severe hardships, and many of the people took refuge in caves dug in the bank to be safe from the shot thrown into Vicksburg by the besieging army.

While Grant was operating against Vicksburg, General Banks, who had taken an army of the Federal troops by sea to New Orleans, was trying to capture Port Hudson, farther down the river. Here, as at Vicksburg, two assaults were repulsed. But, when Vicksburg surrendered, Port Hudson was obliged to yield. This gave the Union armies possession of the whole of the Mississippi River, and cut off the western States of the Confederacy from the eastern.

Surrender of Port Hudson.

CHAPTER LV.

THE CAMPAIGN BETWEEN NASHVILLE AND ATLANTA.

THE Western part of the war had become divided into two main parts. The Union armies won their first object when they gained control of the Mississippi. But another long and bitter contest was fought out before they could secure the strongholds of central Tennessee and northern Georgia.

The war in central Tennessee.

The first great battle on this line was that of Stone River, or Murfreesboro, fought on the last day of the year 1862, about the time that Grant was beginning operations against Vicksburg. The conflict was marked by the brilliant charges made by the Confederates under Bragg, which at length broke to pieces the whole right

Battle of Stone River, or Murfreesboro.



HOLDING THE LINE.

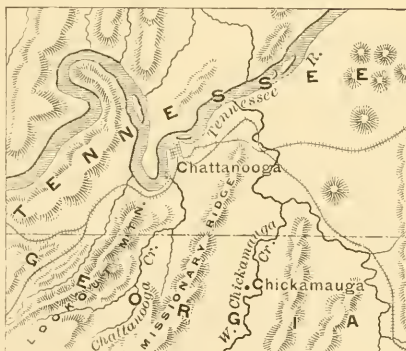
wing of the Union army. General Rosecrans had succeeded Buell in command of the Union troops. The result of the day's fighting was very favorable to the Confederates. But in the latter part of the day the half-defeated Union soldiers, under the immediate command of General Thomas, made the most determined resistance to the dashes which the Confederates continued to make. Some of the generals wished to retreat, but Rosecrans, who had defended Corinth with so much stubbornness, announced his intention to "fight or die here." On the next day, which was the first day of 1863, neither of the shattered armies was in a condition to make a serious attack. On the third day of the battle the Confederates, by a tremendous charge, drove back part of the left wing of Rosecrans's army, but they were soon cut to pieces and themselves driven back. After the two armies had bravely held their ground with varying fortunes for three days, Bragg retreated, and Rosecrans entered Murfreesboro. Each army had lost about nine thousand in killed and wounded, besides those captured.

In the summer and autumn of 1863, Rosecrans, by some well-planned manœuvres, put Bragg at such disadvantage that he was forced to fall back from time to time until he had left Chattanooga in the hands of the Union troops. But Bragg received re-enforcements, and

the great battle of Chickamauga was fought on the 19th and 20th of September, 1863. It was a battle of



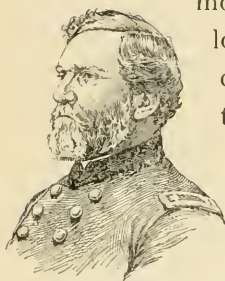
W. S. ROSECRANS.



BATTLES ABOUT CHATTANOOGA.

The battle of
Chickamauga

charge and counter-charge. On the first day the Union army won considerable advantage; but on the second day the right half of Rosecrans's army was broken, and it retreated in confusion toward Chattanooga. The utter rout of the Union army was prevented by General Thomas, whose division had also saved the army at Murfreesboro. With extraordinary coolness he held the left wing against repeated assaults, and, when ammunition failed, his men used their bayonets to repel the Confederate charges. Though Bragg's troops, by splendid fighting, had gained a great victory, Thomas, by the most brilliant defense of the war, kept them back long enough to enable Rosecrans to prepare for the defense of Chattanooga, to which place the Union troops retreated.



GEORGE H. THOMAS.

Grant, who had gained great reputation by his Vicksburg campaign, was now given command of all the forces west of the mountains. Rosecrans was relieved, and Thomas, who was called "the Rock of Chickamauga," was put in his place. Grant took immediate command of the besieged troops in Chattanooga, with Thomas next.

Battles at Chattanooga.

Bragg having sent away a part of his army to attack Burnside in East Tennessee, Grant took advantage of this weakening of his force to attack Bragg in his front. The main body of Bragg's army was intrenched in Chattanooga Valley. Bragg also held Missionary Ridge, in his rear, and Lookout Mountain, to the southwest. Hooker attacked and carried Lookout Mountain on the morning of November 25, 1863, while a mist shut out the summit from the valley. This is sometimes called "The Battle above the Clouds." But Sherman, who had

previously carried an outlying hill at the north end of Missionary Ridge, was checked in his attempt to advance by the obstinate resistance of the Confederates under General Hardee. Grant, therefore, sent the army under Thomas out of Chattanooga to attack the Confederates in front, with instructions to carry the first line and lie down. By a swift charge, under a severe fire, they carried the line at the foot of the mountain; but the guns of the Confederates on the top of Missionary Ridge sent a galling fire upon them. Without orders one impatient regiment after another rushed up the hill. Bragg's troops made a vigorous resistance, but the eager assailants carried the line in six places, and the Confederate army was forced to retreat.



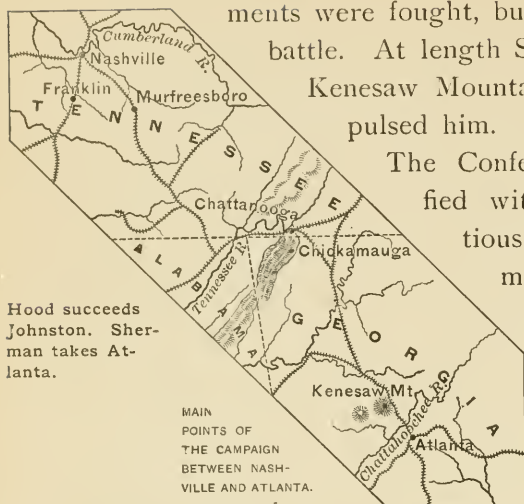
J. E. JOHNSTON.

Grant was now put in command of all the Union armies, and he took charge in person of the troops in front of Washington, while Sherman was left to command the Western army. Sherman, a man of incessant activity and ability of many kinds, was confronted by the Confederate general Joseph E. Johnston, who had been appointed to succeed Bragg. Johnston was born in Virginia in 1807. He was graduated at West Point in 1829, and distinguished himself as an engineer and in active service during the Mexican War. He resigned in 1861, and entered the Confederate army, where he always displayed the greatest prudence and ability. Sherman, by skillful manœuvres, tried to force Johnston to fight in the open field; but Johnston preferred to draw his antagonist farther south, so as to increase the difficulty of supplying his army, and to compel Sherman to attack him behind breastworks. Many severe engage-

Sherman against Johnston. Kennesaw Mountain.



J. B. HOOD.



ments were fought, but Johnston avoided a general battle. At length Sherman attacked Johnston at Kenesaw Mountain, but the Confederates repulsed him.

The Confederate government, dissatisfied with Johnston's long and cautious retreat before Sherman, removed him, and General Hood took his place. Hood believed in sharp fighting, and several battles took place at various points about Atlanta, but they generally resulted in favor of the Union army. At length, Sherman got a considerable part of his force south of Atlanta, so that Hood was compelled to abandon that city or be shut up in it.

CHAPTER LVI.

FROM THE WILDERNESS TO PETERSBURG.—THE WAR IN THE VALLEY.

Grant confronts Lee.

IN the spring of 1864 Ulysses S. Grant, who had taken Vicksburg and won the battle of Chattanooga, was put in command of all the armies of the Union. Grant was born in Point Pleasant, Ohio, April 27, 1822. He spent his boyhood on a farm. In 1839 he was appointed a cadet at West Point, from which he was graduated about the middle of his class in rank. As a lieutenant in

the Mexican War, he was conspicuous for bravery, taking part in the battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, and the assault on Monterey. He also took part in the siege of Vera Cruz, and the succeeding battles of Scott's campaign. He resigned from the army in 1854 and engaged in farming, but was not successful. When the civil war broke out he was a clerk in the leather-store of his father in Galena, Illinois, on a small salary. He then became mustering officer for the State of Illinois, was appointed colonel of the Twenty-first Regiment from that State, and thus entered on his great military career.



ULYSSES S. GRANT.

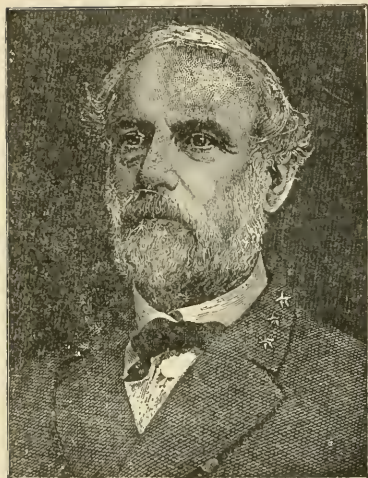
We have seen that Grant left Sherman to command in the West, while he took up his headquarters with Meade in front of Washington. The veteran Eastern armies that had fought so long against each other, between Washington and Richmond, were now to fight to the death, each under the most famous general on its side.

Robert Edward Lee, who now confronted General Grant, was born in Virginia, June 19, 1807. He was graduated at West Point in 1829, second in his class. He distinguished himself as an engineer in the siege of Vera Cruz. He was for three years in command of the Military Academy at West Point. When his own State

Grant in Virginia.

Robert E. Lee.

of Virginia seceded, he thought himself bound to go with it. He resigned his commission on the 20th of April, 1861, and was made commander-in-chief of the Virginia State forces, and later a Confederate general. To his great ability was mostly due the stubbornness of the struggle carried on by the Confederates between Richmond and Washington.



ROBERT E. LEE.

Under Grant and Meade, the Army of the Potomac moved forward toward Richmond. It encountered Lee's army in a region of dense woods, full of undergrowth, known as "The Wilderness." Grant's forces were much the more numerous, for by this time the South, which had put forth nearly its whole strength from the beginning, was becoming somewhat exhausted. On the other hand, Lee fought behind intrenchments, and, in changing his

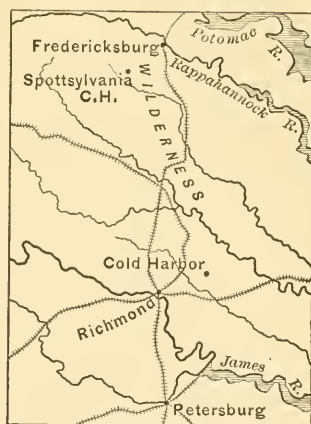
Desperate battles
in "The Wilder-
ness."

position, moved on shorter lines than his opponent. For sixteen days, in the Wilderness and about Spottsylvania Court-House, the armies were so close to each other in the thick brush that the men had to be continually on guard, and so they got little chance for sleep. When they changed positions, the marching was generally done in the night, while the days witnessed the most tremendous fighting that had been seen since the battles of the great Napoleon. In sixteen days the Union army lost 37,500 men, and Lee's losses, though much less, were severe.

Lee was not crushed, but Grant got nearer to Rich- Manœuvres.
mond from time to time by secretly moving a part of the army from his right and marching it around to the rear of his other troops, and then pushing it as far ahead on his left as possible. By thus outflanking Lee, Grant compelled him to fall back, that he might not be cut off from Richmond and his supplies. But Lee always managed to fall back in time to be again between Grant's army and Richmond. The two great generals and the two veteran armies were well matched, and neither could gain a complete victory.

This fighting and this moving to the eastward and Cold Harbor.
around Lee's flank were kept up with varying success until Grant got near to Richmond, when, on the 2d of June, 1864, at Cold Harbor, he attacked the Confederate works along the whole line. The Union army was repulsed with a loss of nearly six thousand men in an hour.

On the 13th of June, 1864, by another rapid march to the left, General Grant's army began to cross the James River. As soon as over, they made an attempt to capture Petersburg, in order to cut off one source of supplies and re-enforcements for Richmond. The outer works near Petersburg were carried, but the Confederates fell back to new lines, and received re-enforcements. The attempt to drive them out of these by assault failed. The Union troops now built trenches close up to the Confederate works, and the two armies



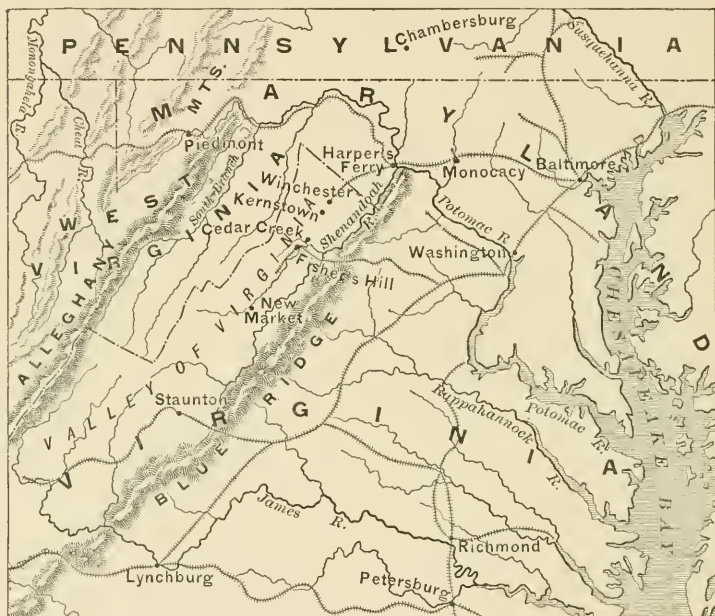
WILDERNESS CAMPAIGN.

Attempt to take
Petersburg.

held these frowning lines, face to face, for nine months, until within a few days of the close of the war.

Explosion of the mine. Attack repulsed.

Soon after the siege began, a mine was dug from the trenches of the Union army under an angle of the Confederate works. By this mine a part of the works was blown up on the 30th of July. An attack



was made immediately after, but it was badly managed, and only resulted in the loss of a great many Union soldiers.

Hunter marches up the Valley, and tries to take Lynchburg.

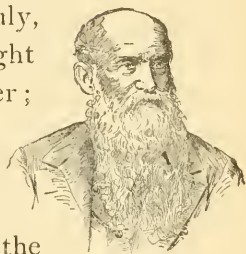
In all the years of the war there had been a smaller campaign carried on in the Valley of Virginia. This fertile valley lies between two ranges of mountains. Its northern end reaches the Potomac not very far away from Washington. In this valley the Confederate gen-

eral Breckinridge defeated General Sigel at New Market on the 15th of May, 1864. General Hunter, who took command of the Union troops, defeated the Confederate general Imboden at Piedmont twenty days later. Hunter, with eighteen thousand men, pushed for Lynchburg, which was a place of the greatest importance. He destroyed railroads and worked much damage, but Lynchburg was re-enforced in time to save it. Finding his retreat down the Valley cut off, Hunter saved his starving army by making his way into the Kanawha Valley. This took him to the west of the Alleghany Mountains, and quite out of the Valley.

The Valley was thus left open to Early, who marched a Confederate force down to Harper's Ferry and across into Maryland. Early defeated a small force under General Lew Wallace at Monocacy on the 7th of July, and pushed straight for Washington, which he might have captured at a dash had he been a little quicker; but re-enforcements from Grant's army marched into the works as the assault began, and he was repulsed. He retreated again up the Valley, pursued by a strong force. But, when a part of the Union troops was withdrawn and sent back to Grant, Early attacked and defeated those under Crook at Kernstown, and threw his cavalry across the Potomac again, and into Pennsylvania, where they burned Chambersburg. In getting back into Virginia, this cavalry force was attacked and defeated.

General Philip H. Sheridan was now given charge of the Union troops on this line. Sheridan was for a long time very wary, determined not to risk a battle against an experienced general like Early without a good chance

Early marches down the Valley, and tries to take Washington.



JUBAL EARLY.

Sheridan in the Valley. Battles at Winchester and Fisher's Hill.

for success. When Early's force had been weakened by the sending of part of it to Petersburg, Sheridan attacked him and won the battle of Opequon, or Winchester, on the 19th of September, 1864. Three days later, Sheridan attacked Early in his trenches at Fisher's Hill, having sent a force around to suddenly assail him on

one side or flank, while the rest of the Union troops charged the works in front. Early's men, attacked on two sides, were routed and driven farther up the Valley to the south.

Sheridan burned all the barns filled with grain, and carried off all the stock in the Valley, to prevent the Confederates from returning. But when Sheridan went back toward the Potomac, Early, largely re-enforced, followed him through this land of



PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

Destruction in the Valley. Battle of Cedar Creek. Sheridan's ride.

starvation. While Sheridan was absent from his troops, a part of Early's force, leaving behind their swords, can-
teens, and everything that could make a noise, moved in the night along a lonely path until they got around on the flank and behind the Union troops, and surprised them while they were asleep. Early, at the same time, with the rest of his force, attacked Sheridan's army in front. This was the beginning of the battle of Cedar Creek. The Confederates defeated and drove back the Union troops for four miles, capturing many prisoners. Sheridan, hearing the firing, put spurs to his horse, and rode up the Valley, calling to his fleeing soldiers, "Come, boys, we're going back!" His presence turned the tide, and by night he had defeated Early once more. A few

smaller actions ended the campaign, for most of the troops on both sides were needed at Petersburg, where the last struggle of all was to take place.

Philip Henry Sheridan, who decided the long struggle in the Valley, was a native of Albany, N. Y., and was born March 6, 1831. He was graduated at West Point in 1853. He first won distinction as a commander of cavalry, and he showed great qualities at Perryville and Murfreesboro, after which he was made a major-general. At Chickamauga and in the battles about Chattanooga he further distinguished himself. His campaign in the Valley of Virginia and the part he played in the closing scenes made him one of the most famous generals of the war. He succeeded Sherman at the head of the army, and in 1888 he was made a full general. Only Grant and Sherman had attained that rank in the United States Army before him. He died at Nonquitt, Massachusetts, August 5, 1888.

Sheridan's
career.



COLD COMFORT.

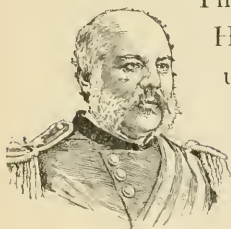
CHAPTER LVII.

CLOSE OF THE CIVIL WAR.

Sherman's march
begun.

IN Chapter LV we have seen that Sherman captured Atlanta, having in opposition to him the Confederate general Hood. The latter was a bold man, and he determined to force Sherman to fall back into Tennessee again, by going to his rear and cutting off his supplies from the North. But Sherman, knowing that the resources of the South were almost exhausted, concluded to risk a blow that might end the war. Leaving the troops in Tennessee under command of General Thomas, he set out from Atlanta with the rest of his army, to march southward through the heart of the Confederacy.

Hood in Ten-
nessee. Battle
of Franklin.



GENERAL SCHOFIELD.

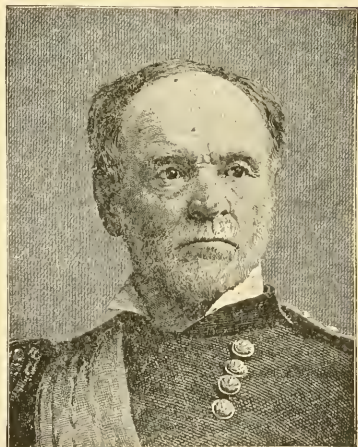
Battle of Nash-
ville.

Hood, refusing to follow Sherman into Georgia, pushed northward into Tennessee, resolved to strike Thomas before he could get his forces together. He attacked a part of General Thomas's troops, under General Schofield, at Franklin, in Tennessee. The Confederates made the most desperate charges, carrying, at first, a portion of the Union lines, but Schofield succeeded in holding his works long enough to get safely across the Harpeth River. He then fell back and joined Thomas at Nashville. Hood soon encamped before Nashville, where, after a rather long delay, he was attacked on the morning of December 15th by Thomas's whole army. A two days' battle ensued, which resulted in the utter defeat of Hood's army. This was a blow from which the exhausted Confederacy could not hope to recover.

While Hood and Thomas were manœuvring in Tennessee, Sherman and his army were marching through the Confederacy. His men were consuming supplies that would otherwise have sustained Lee in Richmond. Railroads of the greatest military value were utterly destroyed, by making fires of the cross-ties and then heating and twisting the rails. Nothing could have tended more to bring the war to an end than the breaking of the railways, on which food and soldiers must be moved. Just before the battle of Nashville was fought, Sherman reached Savannah and laid siege to it, having been about a month without communication with the North. On the 20th of December the Confederates evacuated the city, and Sherman occupied it.

Sherman destroying in Georgia. Savannah taken.

William Tecumseh Sherman, whose capture of Atlanta and march to the sea made him one of the most illustrious figures of the civil war, was born in Ohio in 1820, and graduated at West Point in 1840. He resigned from the army in 1853, and engaged in the banking business in San Francisco. Later he practiced law in Kansas. When the war broke out he was superintendent of the military academy of Louisiana. He was reappointed to the army in 1861. At the close of the war he was next in rank to General Grant, and he became general of the army when Grant was elected President.



WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.

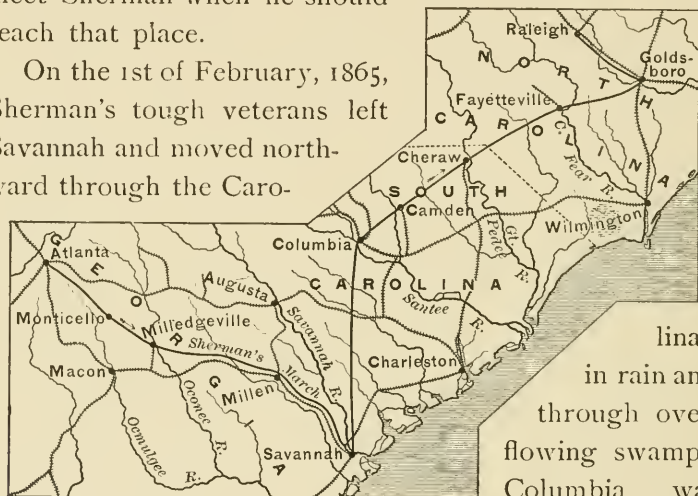
In order to give Sherman, when he should move northward from Savannah, a new base of supplies from

Capture of Fort Fisher and Wilmington.

the sea, and in order to stop blockade-running, an expedition was sent to capture Wilmington, in North Carolina. Fort Fisher, which guarded the entrance to this place, was bombarded by a fleet and then carried by assault, on January 15, 1865. By way of Wilmington, General Schofield, with a part of Thomas's army from Tennessee, now pushed up to Goldsboro, in North Carolina, to meet Sherman when he should reach that place.

Sherman's march
northward.

On the 1st of February, 1865, Sherman's tough veterans left Savannah and moved northward through the Caro-



SHERMAN'S MARCH
FROM ATLANTA TO
RALEIGH.

linas,
in rain and
through over-
flowing swamps.
Columbia was

taken and burned. The Union army pushed on northward, General Sherman having opposed to him his old antagonist, General Joseph E. Johnston. Johnston did not give battle till Sherman had reached Averysboro, in North Carolina. Here the Confederates were defeated; but at Bentonville, on the 19th of March, Johnston came near to defeating one column of Sherman's army before re-enforcements could reach it.

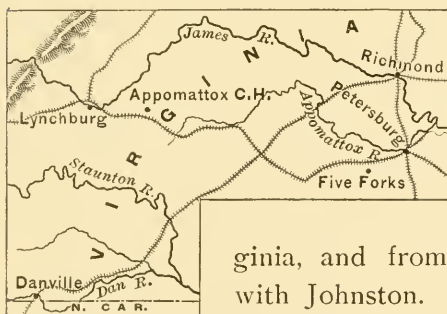
Movements about
Petersburg.

Sherman, by his marches, had broken to pieces the interior lines of travel in the Southern States, and greatly added to the troubles of Lee in Richmond. Neither re-

enforcements nor supplies could be had without difficulty. The Southern people, who had bravely suffered the greatest hardships, were now disheartened. Lee began to consider how he could retreat. But Grant, whose force was more than twice as large as Lee's, moved Sheridan's command around to the south of the Confederate works, in order, if possible, to prevent the dwindling Confederate army from getting away.

Lee was everywhere outnumbered, and his men were beaten and captured, especially in the battle of Five Forks, on the 1st of April. He had weakened his force in front of Grant, by drawing out troops to keep Sheridan from cutting the railroads that brought him supplies, and, while the battle of Five Forks was taking place, some of the Confederate works at Petersburg were carried by assault, and others were taken the next day.

Battle of Five Forks. Lee's works carried.



The night following, that is, the 2d of April, Lee began his retreat from Richmond. His first object was to reach Danville, Vir-

Lee's retreat and surrender, April 9, 1865.

ginia, and from that place to unite with Johnston. But, finding a Union force between him and Danville, his now starving army was turned toward Lynchburg. Sheridan's cavalry cut him off from that place, and on the 9th of April, 1865, Lee surrendered his army to General Grant, at Appomattox Court-House.

Johnston could make no stand alone, and sixteen days later he surrendered to General Sherman. The smaller

Johnston surrenders. Close of the war.

bodies of Confederate troops yielded soon after, and the four terrible years of war were at last ended. The soldiers on both sides returned to their homes. No war so vast had ever been seen in modern times, and no braver men had ever fought. The impressions left by the sufferings of the civil war have produced a strong sentiment in favor of peace.

CHAPTER LVIII.

TRAITS AND RESULTS OF THE WAR.—DEATH OF LINCOLN.

The Trent affair.
Danger of war
with England.

THE war led to some complications in the foreign relations of the United States. Both in England and France there were statesmen who were jealous of the rapid growth of this country. They were afraid that the United States would become more powerful than the European nations, and they would have been pleased to see it divided. In 1861 this hostile feeling in England was very much increased by what is called "the Trent affair." Mason and Slidell were sent as ambassadors from the Confederate States—Mason to England, and Slidell to France. They ran the blockade, getting out of the harbor of Charleston during a dark night, and reached Havana. From Havana they sailed in the Trent, an English steamer. Captain Wilkes, of an American man-of-war, stopped the Trent and took Mason and Slidell from it, carrying them prisoners to the United States. This act produced great excitement in England, and for a while war seemed imminent between the two coun-

tries. But, on the demand of Great Britain, the United States surrendered the ambassadors, as improperly captured.

The United States Navy had been rapidly enlarged after the war began. One of its principal duties was to blockade the Southern ports, to keep the Confederates from getting arms and other supplies from foreign countries. Many fast-sailing English ships were engaged in running this blockade. These, by the law of nations, were subject to capture by United States vessels, and many were taken, but the high prices paid for the commodities that were got in, justified the risk. These blockade-runners generally entered the Southern ports at night. But, when the chief sea-ports of the South were captured one after another by the navy and the land-forces of the Union, blockade-running was gradually stopped, and the South experienced greater and greater difficulty in clothing an army and in finding materials of war.

Blockade of the Southern coast.

The Confederate government could not get much of a navy afloat from ports so well blockaded, but ships were built in England and secretly sent to sea. These received Confederate commissions, and almost succeeded in ruining American commerce. The most famous of these ships, called the "Alabama," was commanded by Captain Raphael Semmes. It was built in England, and it captured in all sixty-seven merchant and whaling ships. In a fight with the United States man-of-war Kearsarge, the Alabama was sunk in the English Channel, June 19, 1864. After the war the United States set up claims against the British government on account of the damages done to American commerce by the Alabama and

Confederate navy.
The Alabama and
"the Alabama
claims."

other Confederate cruisers built in England. The "Alabama claims," as they were called, after years of discussion, were submitted to a court of arbitration which sat in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1872, and condemned England to pay to the United States \$15,500,000.

Action of France
during the war.

Napoleon III, Emperor of the French, was also jealous of the growth of the United States, and he availed himself of the civil war to establish the Archduke Maximilian, of Austria, as Emperor of Mexico; but, after the close of the war in this country, French support of Maximilian was withdrawn, and the empire was overthrown by the Mexican people. Powerful ships were built in France for the Confederate government, with the secret countenance of the emperor; but the energetic proceedings of John Bigelow, United States minister at the French court, prevented all of them from sailing but one, and this got away so near to the close of the war as to be of no service.

Legal-tender
paper money, or
"greenbacks."

The expenses of the war can never be fully estimated. The United States Government borrowed money on interest, by giving bonds to pay after a certain number of years. A large part of this debt has now been paid. But, as another means of borrowing money, "legal-tender notes" were issued; that is, paper bills, which by law could be used to pay debts and taxes, instead of coins. These legal-tender notes were printed on a peculiar green paper, and got the name of "greenbacks." When a great number of them had been issued, and the dangers to the government increased, the value of this paper money declined, until at one time a dollar of it was really worth less than half a dollar. However, as the greenbacks were by law good for the payment of

debts, they were used instead of the more valuable silver and gold, which for seventeen years disappeared entirely from general use. The depreciation in the value of money caused a great apparent rise in the values of commodities. Long after the war closed, in 1879, the government began to redeem these legal-tender bills in silver and gold. This was called "the resumption of specie payments." But the fact that gold or silver was to be paid for them had made greenbacks by this time worth as much as coin, and people generally preferred to keep the paper money.

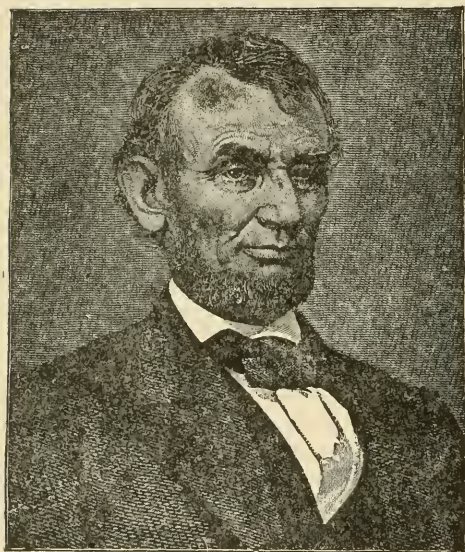
The Confederate government also resorted to loans, some of which were based on a pledge of the cotton-crop of the country. But the bonds became almost valueless as the future of the Confederacy grew hopeless. A great deal of Confederate legal-tender money was also issued. This took the place of coin, and declined in value until twenty dollars of it would not buy one of gold. When the Confederacy was overthrown, this money became of no value. The rapid decline in the value of its paper money was one of the greatest difficulties the Confederate government had to contend with in its last years. To pay its soldiers and to provide materials of war, the Confederacy could only issue paper notes, of which there were already too many.

Confederate
money.

To avoid confusion, we have preferred to tell the story of the military operations of the war without mentioning the political affairs of the time. In 1864 the Republican party nominated President Lincoln for re-election, and Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, a Southern Union man, for Vice-President. The Democratic party nominated

Second election
of Lincoln, 1864.

General George B. McClellan, and for a time it seemed that the discouragement of the Northern people with the long continuance of the war might elect McClellan. But the success of Sherman in taking Atlanta, the capture of the forts near Mobile by the fleet under Farragut, and the successes of the Union army under Sheridan in the Valley of Virginia, removed all doubt about the result, and Lincoln received all the electoral votes cast except those of Kentucky, Delaware, and New Jersey.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Assassination of
President Lin-
coln, 1865.

Lincoln began his second term of office in March, 1865, while Sherman was marching northward through the Carolinas, and when the close of the war was already in sight. When Lee surrendered, Lincoln's mind was already revolving plans for conciliating those who had been opposed to him, and for restoring the government at the South. But, while the President was sitting with his family in a box at a theatre in Washington, John Wilkes Booth, one of a band of conspirators, approached him from behind and shot him, and then leaped to the stage, crying, "*Sic semper tyrannis!*" which means, "Thus always with tyrants," and escaped. Booth was afterward overtaken, and killed in resisting arrest. Lincoln died on the 15th of April, the day after he was shot.

He was deeply mourned, because he had shown himself a man of great wisdom and goodness.

Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky, February 12, 1809. His father removed to Indiana when he was a little boy, and while that country was exceedingly wild and rough. The family lived in a half-faced camp—that is, a cabin with one side left out and the fire built out-of-doors, in front of the open side. Abraham endured many privations, and struggled hard to get an education. The schools were few and the teachers ignorant, but Lincoln trained his own mind by carefully thinking out every subject which puzzled him, and he spent his spare time in reading. He worked on a farm, went to New Orleans on a flat-boat, was clerk in a country store, learned and practiced surveying, and then studied law. He served several terms in the Legislature of Illinois, and was a member of Congress. He became a leading lawyer and politician in his State, and gained a national fame by a series of debates, in which he was engaged with Senator Douglas in 1858. His integrity, his moderation, and his strong speeches brought him the nomination of President, and the rest of his history is that of the country.

Abraham
Lincoln.

Lincoln's assassination was regretted at the South, where his kindliness was coming to be known, and where the people feared that his death might lead to measures of retaliation. But the war was closed without acts of revenge, and nobody was put to death for a political offense. Jefferson Davis, the President of the Confederacy, who had been captured in Georgia at the close of the war, was arraigned before a court on a charge of high treason. He was confined in Fortress Monroe for two years, when he was released without being tried.

Release of Jefferson
Davis.

CHAPTER LIX.

POLITICAL EVENTS SINCE THE CIVIL WAR.

The question of
State independ-
ence settled.

THE war settled two questions long debated in this country, that of State sovereignty and that of slavery. From the beginning of the government it had been disputed whether or not a State might act in a sovereign way in opposition to the United States government. The war answered "No" to this question. Though there are yet, and perhaps always will be, differences of opinion regarding the distribution of power between the Federal Government and the government of the several States, it is generally conceded that the result of the war definitely settled that the Union of States is not a compact which may be broken by the withdrawal of individual States; that the nation is to be regarded as one and indivisible; and that laws of Congress can only be annulled by judicial decisions. On the other hand, recent decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States show a care of the rights of the several States as against infringements by the laws or courts of the United States. It was accident and the jealousy of the colonies toward one another that gave us this nicely balanced federal system; but its elasticity and its recognition of the right of local self-government probably render it the best possible for a people spread over so wide a territory and living under conditions so dissimilar, and so jealous of personal freedom.

The question of
slavery disap-
pears.

The Emancipation Proclamation had only abolished slavery in those States and districts at that time resist-

ing the United States government. But the thirteenth amendment to the Constitution, which was adopted at the close of the war, and ratified in December, 1865, forbade slavery in all parts of the country forever. One of the first effects of this great revolution was the destruction of the social and industrial system to which the Southern States had been accustomed for two centuries. This necessarily entailed a great deal of financial loss and personal suffering, with some social disorder. But the ultimate benefits of the change are now almost universally recognized. To the unity of the national life the change is of great advantage. The question of slavery was a source of difficulty and division from the adoption of the Constitution until its disappearance. It is not likely that any new question will ever divide the people on sectional lines. Since the abolition of slavery in the United States, the system has disappeared from every civilized nation.

A great question of history was also decided by the war. It was settled that the heart of North America is to be occupied by but one great power. Had there been more than one, the resources of the people might have been wasted and their advancement checked by standing armies, and wars happening from time to time. Without doubt the United States will act a much greater part in the history of the world and the advancement of civilization than its fragments could have done if broken apart and divided by international jealousies.

On the death of Lincoln, Andrew Johnson, the Vice-President, succeeded to the presidency. There soon grew up a difference between Johnson and the Republican Congress in regard to the measures to be adopted for the reconstruction of government in the Southern

But one great
power in North
America.

Andrew Johnson
President.

States. Congress required, among other things, that every State which had seceded should admit the negroes to vote, before the representatives of the State should be again admitted to Congress. President Johnson held that the States had not lost the right of representation by secession and war. He did not think that Congress had a right to refuse admission to lawfully elected representatives.



ANDREW JOHNSON.

President Johnson impeached.

The difference between Johnson and Congress, on several points in regard to reconstruction, resulted in an effort by Congress to limit the power of the President to remove officers. The Republicans were more than two thirds of each House, so that they could make laws in spite of the veto of President Johnson. They passed a law forbidding him to make removals from office except by consent of the Senate. This law Johnson refused to obey. The House of Representatives voted to impeach the President; that is, to bring him to trial in order to have him removed as unfit to hold his office. Such a charge must be made by the House of Representatives, and the Senate is the court which has to decide the case. As less than two thirds of the Senate voted to remove him, Johnson remained in office to the end of his term.

Grant elected President, 1868.

In 1868 General Grant was elected President, as the candidate of the Republicans. The Democratic candidate was Horatio Seymour, of New York. The election turned on the dispute over measures for reconstructing the Southern States.

During Grant's first administration, in 1870, the last of the States that had belonged to the Confederacy com-

plied with the conditions demanded by Congress. All the States were now represented in Congress for the first time since South Carolina had seceded in 1860. In this same year, 1870, the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution was ratified. This gave to the negroes the right to vote in every State in the Union.

The seceded States readmitted to Congress
Negro suffrage established.

Various causes produced in the South disorder and bad government for some years, but these are too much matters of recent political discussion to be treated historically. The war, too, had wasted the resources of the country and left the people in poverty. A better state of things has ensued, and the Southern people have gradually entered on a career of peace and great prosperity. Under the old social system of the South, agriculture was almost the only form of labor profitable; but since the war cotton-mills have sprung up, and iron manufactures have been greatly developed in the Southern States.

Disorders at the South, followed by prosperity.

In 1872 there was considerable dissatisfaction with General Grant's administration of the government, and a portion of the Republicans formed a new party, which they called the "Liberal Republican" party. They nominated Horace Greeley for President. The Democratic party accepted Greeley as its candidate also, but Grant was re-elected by a large majority.

Grant re-elected

In 1876 the Republicans nominated Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, for President. The Democrats nominated Samuel J. Tilden, of New York. The election was a close one, and the country came near to being thrown into a distressing confusion by the condition of the Southern State governments. In some of these were "returning-boards," or committees, which had the right to

Disputed election of 1876 decided in favor of Hayes.

revise the election returns, and throw out such as they thought had been affected by fraud or violence. By the votes cast, Louisiana had given a majority for Tilden. But the Republicans claimed that certain districts had been carried by intimidating the negroes and by fraud. The returns from these were thrown out by the returning-board, and the vote of the State was given to Hayes. This gave a majority of one. The most exciting debates ensued in Congress, which had finally to decide the matter. As the Republicans had a majority in the Senate and the Democrats a majority in the House, the two bodies could not



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

agree. The question was at length referred to fifteen commissioners, eight of whom voted to give the election to Hayes.



JAMES A. GARFIELD.

In 1880 General Winfield S. Hancock, who had won renown as a brilliant division commander in the Army of the Potomac, was nominated for President by the Democrats. General James A. Garfield, of Ohio, whose distinction was chiefly due to the ability he had

shown in debate on the floor of Congress, was nominated by the Republicans and elected. Three months after President Garfield was inaugurated, on the 2d of July, 1881, he was shot and mortally wounded by a disappointed office-seeker. Garfield lived eighty days after he was shot, and died on September 19, 1881. His assassin was tried for murder and hanged.

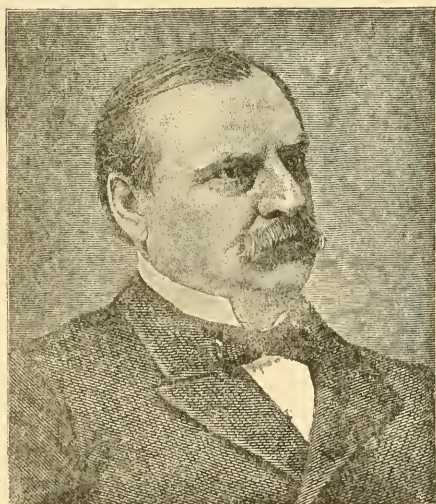
Chester A. Arthur, of New York, had been elected as Vice-President when Garfield was chosen President. On the death of Garfield, Arthur succeeded to the presidency, and filled out the unexpired term for which Garfield had been elected, according to the Constitution.

Election of Garfield, 1880. His assassination, 1881.



CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

Arthur, President.



GROVER CLEVELAND.

Cleveland elected.

In 1884 the Republicans nominated James G. Blaine for President. His distinction had been gained chiefly as Speaker of the House of Representatives and Senator from Maine. The Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland, then popular as Governor of New York. After an un-

usually severe struggle, remarkable especially for its personalities and bitterness, and a very close election, Cleveland was chosen. The Democratic party thus returned to power for the first time since the election of Lincoln in 1860.

Political changes.

The beginning of Cleveland's administration may be said to mark the opening of a new era in American politics. The period of reconstruction after the war had passed, the questions growing out of the war and the enfranchisement of the negroes were becoming less important, and the attention of the public was gradually turning to questions of administration and finance.

Civil-service reform.

For many years public-spirited men had been urging the reform of the civil service. From the time of President Jackson a bad custom had prevailed of appointing men to office under the government as a reward for services to the party in power. This involved the removal of a large majority of the employees of the government whenever the new President was of the party opposed to the one retiring. Such a method of bestowing office tended to degrade elections into a mere scramble between would-be place-holders, and so to corrupt the government. It also compelled the government to support a multitude of office-holders unfitted by character or experience for the work to be done. The Civil Service law, intended to remedy this abuse, was adopted in 1883. The first change of parties after its adoption, which took place when Cleveland was inaugurated, gave an opportunity to prove the merits of the new system, and its application has since been gradually extended.

The question of the tariff.

The question most agitated during Cleveland's administration was that of the tariff. Very early in the

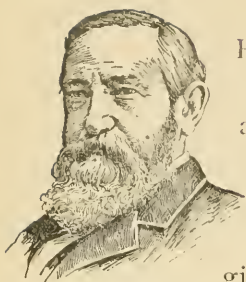
history of the government there were two opinions on this subject. One class of statesmen has maintained that American manufactures should be protected by levying high duties on articles made abroad, in order that the American market may be kept chiefly for the products of American labor. The other class maintains that high protective duties are unjust to the American consumer, and of little, if any, benefit to the manufacturer. They hold that the tariff should be used wholly or chiefly to raise the money needed to support the government. This was a main point of division between the Whigs and Democrats before the civil war.

At the assembling of Congress in December, 1887, the President sent to that body a message remarkable among documents of its kind in that it was wholly confined to the discussion of a reduction of the tariff on account of the accumulation of money in the treasury from excess of revenue. In accordance with the recommendations of this message, a bill reducing the duties on certain articles and putting other articles on the free list was introduced to the House by the Ways and Means Committee. Roger Q. Mills, of Texas, was chairman of this committee, and the bill is known as the "Mills Bill." It passed the House of Representatives. In the Senate a substitute bill was introduced as a Republican measure, but, after the longest session in the history of the country, Congress adjourned without either bill having become a law.

Tariff debate of
1888.

Meantime the canvass for President opened in June by the nomination of President Cleveland for re-election. The Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana. Harrison was elected.

Harrison elected
President.



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

Benjamin Harrison was a grandson of William H. Harrison, ninth President. He was born in Ohio in 1833, and died March 13, 1901. He entered the army at the outbreak of the war as second lieutenant, and rose to be brigadier-general. He was afterward a member of the United States Senate.

At the first session of Congress after the beginning of Harrison's administration the so-called "McKinley Bill" was introduced and passed as a Republican measure. The general tendency of the act was to increase the duties on many articles so as to check their importation. The principle of reciprocity was introduced into this bill; that is to say, the President was given power to suspend the duties on certain imports from any country granting a like concession in favor of articles exported from this country. At the elections for members of the House of Representatives in 1890 a large majority opposed to the McKinley tariff was chosen.

Differences with
foreign nations.

In Harrison's administration difficulties arose between the United States and Italy on account of the killing of Italian subjects by lynch law in New Orleans, and between this country and Chile on account of outrages committed on American sailors at Valparaiso. The United States finally paid a money indemnity to Italy; and the difficulty with Chile was adjusted by the payment of a money indemnity by that country to the United States.

Among the other notable events of this administration were the extension of the new navy and the promotion of civil service reform.

The silver ques-
tion.

The decline in the value of silver has produced much discussion of what is known as the Silver Question. By the law of 1890 the United States Government was obliged

to purchase at market rates 4,500,000 ounces of silver every month. This law did not restore silver to its former value. Unsuccessful attempts have been made to establish a free coinage system, under which any owner of silver may deposit it in the mint and have it made into dollars.

In order to avoid election bribery and other prevalent abuses, thirty-five States have in the past few years adopted what is known as the Australian ballot system or some modification of it. Ballot reform.

In March, 1891, after more than fifty years of agitation of the question, an international copyright law was passed, giving to foreign authors property rights in their productions when printed in this country. International copyright.

In the presidential election of 1892, there were five candidates in the field, viz.: Grover Cleveland, renominated; Benjamin Harrison, renominated; James B. Weaver, of Iowa, candidate of the newly-organized Populist or People's party; John Bidwell, of California, Prohibition; and Simon Wing, of Massachusetts, Socialist Labor.

In the ensuing election, Cleveland received 5,554,414 popular and 277 electoral votes; Harrison, 5,190,802 popular and 145 electoral; Weaver, 1,027,329 popular and 22 electoral; and Bidwell and Wing, 271,058 and 21,164 popular votes respectively, but no electoral. Cleveland was thus elected with a plurality of 363,612 popular and 132 electoral votes. Cleveland's second administration.

The long-promised new (Wilson) tariff bill was reported in the House of Representatives by its Committee on Ways and Means, December 19, 1893, and debate on it began immediately after the holiday recess. The House Wilson tariff bill.

attached an income-tax clause to the bill, and in this amended form passed the measure, February 1, 1894. In the Senate a compromise (Gorman) tariff bill, containing 634 amendments to the original bill of the House, was adopted July 3d.

The President openly condemned this bill, but the House accepted it, and it became a law without the President's signature. The measure reduced duties in some cases and made many additions to the free list. Subsequently, the United States Supreme Court pronounced the income-tax clause unconstitutional.

Silver legislation.

Next to the tariff legislation that concerning the silver-purchase clause of the Sherman Act elicited for a time the widest interest. This clause provided that the Secretary of the Treasury should purchase silver bullion to the amount of 4,500,000 ounces per month and issue Treasury notes in payment.

The President called an extra session of Congress, to meet on August 7, 1893, and to it he thoroughly recommended the repeal of the silver-purchase clause. A repealing bill (Wilson) was promptly passed by the House, and in the Senate a substitute (Vorhees), providing for a repeal but affirming bimetallism as a national policy, was adopted. The House concurred in the substitute, and the President approved it.

Another feature of the silver legislation of this period was the bill (Bland) providing for the coinage of silver seigniorage to the amount of \$55,000,000, which passed both Houses of Congress, and was vetoed by the President.

**Annexation of
Hawaii.**

Trouble in the Hawaiian Islands had been brewing for many months, and there were influential people who declared that the unrest there was fomented by citizens

of the United States. In 1893 the reigning queen, Liliuokalani, was deposed. A provisional government was established, and a commission was sent to Washington to promote the annexation of the islands to the United States. A treaty to that effect was signed and sent to the Senate for ratification.

Five days after his inauguration, the President withdrew the treaty from the Senate, and a few days later he sent a commissioner with paramount authority (Blount) to the islands to investigate existing political conditions and especially the alleged connection of citizens of the United States with the local revolution. The commissioner's first official act after his arrival was to order the withdrawal of the United States forces that had been landed at Honolulu.

The provisional government then resolved itself into a republic, and in 1898 this was annexed to the United States under a joint resolution of Congress, and was organized as a territory, April 30, 1900.

The Court of Arbitration, to which had been sub- Fur-seal fisheries.
mitted the contentions of the United States and Great Britain regarding the fur-seal fisheries in the Bering Sea, denied the claimed right of the United States to a closed sea, and forbade the killing of seals within fifty miles of the Pribilof Islands or beyond that limit between May 1st and July 31st annually.

Cleveland approved an Act of Congress amending the Chinese Exclusion Act by extending the time of registration six months from the date of approval, and the United States Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the original act.

The year 1893 was especially notable for wide-spread

Troubles of 1893. labor disorders, financial distress, and for political changes throughout the country which in the following year cost the Democratic party its control of Congress. The labor troubles were chiefly centered in a great railway strike and large destruction of property in and near Chicago. The financial distress, involving the failure of a vast number of institutions and business concerns, the throwing out of employment hundreds of thousands of persons, and the depreciation of almost every form of security, was general, and was popularly attributed to fear of the promised, but as yet unborn, Democratic tariff.

British-Venezuelan dispute.

In the closing days of this administration the President created an international sensation by recommending to Congress the appointment of a commission to determine whether Great Britain had infringed the Monroe Doctrine in its boundary dispute with Venezuela.

Such a commission was authorized and appointed. After it had gathered a large mass of evidence bearing on the claims of the disputants, the latter signed a convention to submit the boundary question to arbitration, and it was so settled.

Columbus Centennial.

In brighter light, Cleveland's second administration will be memorable for the Columbian Naval Review in New York Harbor and on the Hudson River, the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, the Congress of Religions on the exposition grounds, and the meeting of the Arbitration Congress at Washington—all pleasing international events.

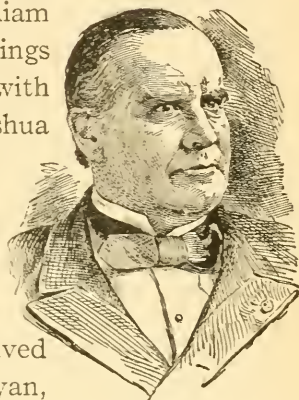
CHAPTER LX.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF MCKINLEY.

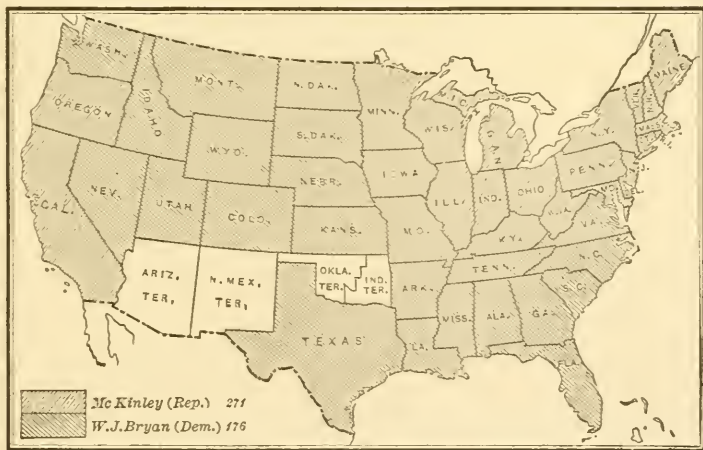
In the presidential campaign of 1896, there were seven tickets in the field, the largest number since 1872, when General Grant was re-elected, viz.: William McKinley, of Ohio, Republican; William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, Democrat and Populist, with separate candidates for vice-president; Joshua Levering, of Maryland, Prohibition; John M. Palmer, of Illinois, National Democrat; Charles H. Matchett, of New York, Socialist Labor; and Charles E. Bentley, of Nebraska, National or Free-Silver Prohibition.

In the ensuing election McKinley received 7,035,638 popular and 271 electoral votes; Bryan, on both tickets, 6,467,946 popular and 176 elec-

Presidential campaign of 1896.



WILLIAM MCKINLEY.



THE ELECTION OF 1896.

Revolt in Democratic party.

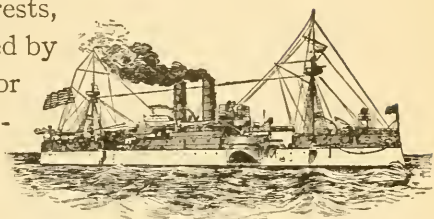
toral; and Levering, Palmer, Matchett, and Bentley, 141,676, 131,529, 36,454 and 13,969 popular votes respectively. McKinley was thus elected with a plurality of 567,692 popular and 95 electoral votes. This campaign was marked by a considerable revolt in the Democratic party, many of its former adherents uniting with the Populists. Within a few days after McKinley's election was known for a certainty the wheels of industry throughout the country began revolving with old-time vigor, and business in general "picked up" as if by magic. It was estimated that within two weeks approximately three-quarters of a million persons who had long been idle returned to employment, and about as many more who had been working on sharply-reduced time resumed their former hours.

Suffering in Cuba.

Historically, the most conspicuous event in McKinley's first administration was the war with Spain.

Spain had long held as colonies the West India islands of Cuba and Porto Rico and the Philippines in the Pacific, and her bad government and extortionate taxes had led to many rebellions. In 1897-'98 both Cuba and the Philippines were in a state of insurrection, and in Cuba the Spanish commander, failing to subdue the guerrilla bands, resorted to what was called reconcentration, which consisted in compelling the native families to leave their country homes and come together in towns. This produced in a little while the most awful scenes of suffering, disease and death, the victims being mainly women and children, while it did nothing toward subduing the insurrection. It was estimated that four hundred and fifty thousand Cubans thus perished. Sympathy for the Cubans was strong in the United States, and its expression

aroused angry resentment among the Spaniards in Havana. The American war ship *Maine* was accordingly sent thither to protect American interests, and was anchored at a spot designated by the Spanish authorities in the harbor of Havana. In the evening of February 15, 1898, she was blown up and sank almost immediately. Of three hundred and sixty men, constituting her officers and crew, two hundred and sixty-six were either killed or drowned, and sixty others were wounded. It was the general belief among Americans that the disaster was caused by a submarine mine, placed there and exploded by Spanish treachery, and this belief was strengthened by the report of a commission of inquiry made up of four American naval officers.



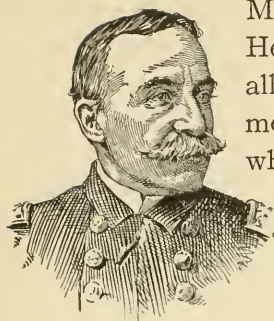
THE MAINE.

Destruction of
the *Maine*.

On April 11, 1898, President McKinley sent to Congress a message setting forth the whole situation, and a few days later Congress adopted a joint resolution declaring that the people of Cuba were, and of right ought to be, free and independent, and demanding that Spain at once withdraw her forces from the island and relinquish her authority there and directing the President to use the land and naval forces to carry out this resolution. This resolution, which constituted a declaration of war, the President signed April 20th, and three days later he called out one hundred and twenty-five thousand volunteers.

Spanish-American
War.

The American naval vessels in home waters were at once ordered to blockade the Cuban ports. The Asiatic squadron, commanded by Commodore George Dewey, was in the British port of Hong-Kong, and was notified



DEWEY.

**Battle of Manila
Bay.**

to leave immediately, as the British Government had proclaimed neutrality. He was ordered to proceed to Manila and attack the Spanish fleet in that harbor. He had four cruisers and two gunboats, carrying in all one hundred and thirty-three guns. Early in the morning of May 1st he sailed into Manila Bay, where he found the Spanish fleet, which consisted of seven cruisers, two gunboats, and four torpedo boats, carrying in all one hundred and thirty-five guns, and was assisted by batteries on shore. The Spanish fleet was anchored across the entrance of a bay within the great bay, and the American fleet attacked it at once, steaming slowly five times round an ellipse, firing the starboard guns as they went up, and the port guns as they came back. The American gunners were wonderful marksmen, and nearly every shot told. The Spanish flagship was soon riddled, and had to be abandoned. The Spaniards were brave enough, but were no marksmen at all. Dewey drew off for a while, and then resumed the attack. In a little more than an hour the entire Spanish fleet was either sunk or driven ashore and burned, and the Americans poured into the land batteries a fire that compelled them to surrender. The Spanish fleet lost three hundred and eighty-one men killed or wounded. In the American fleet seven men were slightly wounded, but not a vessel was seriously injured.

As soon as possible an expedition under the command of General Wesley Merritt sailed from San Francisco, carrying a large military force, which was landed near the southern shore of Manila Bay and besieged the city of Manila, still held by the Spaniards. On August 13th,

after considerable fighting, the city was surrendered. A body of Filipino insurgents had assisted somewhat in the

Capture of Manila.

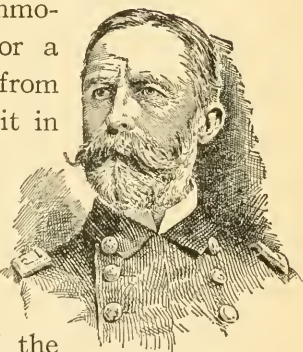


FIELD OF THE CAMPAIGN IN CUBA.

siege, but General Merritt was obliged to prevent them from entering the city, as they were only anxious to loot it and massacre the Spaniards. Various influences brought about a condition

that resulted in a prolonged struggle against American authority by armed bands of natives mainly belonging to the Tagal tribe.

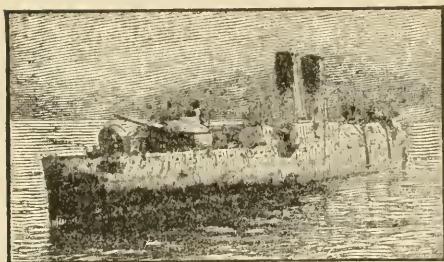
Meanwhile Dewey's remarkable victory was followed two months later by another on the southern coast of Cuba. An American fleet, commanded by Comodore William T. Sampson, after searching for a Spanish fleet that had crossed the Atlantic from Spain, under Admiral Cervera, at last found it in the harbor of Santiago, and waited patiently for it to come out; while an American military force had been landed on the coast east of that place and was approaching the city of Santiago. On July 3d Cervera's fleet, consisting of four war ships and two torpedo boats, came out of the harbor and steamed westward along the coast, hoping to escape the American fleet and reach Havana. But the Americans, under the temporary command of Schley, in Sampson's absence, were on the alert, and at once gave chase. A running fight ensued, and one after another the Spanish ships were riddled with shot, set on fire, and driven ashore, the last one fifty miles from Santiago. About six



SAMPSON.

Naval victory off the coast of Cuba.

hundred Spaniards were killed or drowned, and twelve hundred were made prisoners. In the American fleet one man was killed and three were wounded.

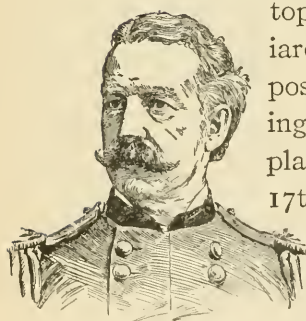


ONE OF THE DESTROYED SPANISH SHIPS.

The American land forces, commanded by General William R. Shafter, were steadily approaching the city of Santiago on the east and northeast. On July 1st were fought the

battles of San Juan Hill and El Caney, in which the Americans, breaking through all kinds of obstructions, including entanglements of barbed wire, stormed the heights under a constant fire, carried the rifle pits at the

top, and remained masters of the field. The Spaniards renewed the battle next day, but to no purpose. The American lines were gradually extending to the north and west, and siege guns were placed in position to command the city. On July 17th Santiago was surrendered, and with it all the eastern end of the island and about twenty-two thousand soldiers. The island of Porto Rico also was occupied by American forces under the immediate command of General Nelson A. Miles.



MILES.

Terms of peace.

In the last days of July peace negotiations were begun, and on August 12th the preliminary agreement was signed. The final treaty was signed in Paris by the American and Spanish commissioners December 10th. By this treaty Spain ceded to the United States the Philippine Islands, the island of Guam (one of the Ladrões), and the island of Porto Rico, and withdrew from



Cuba, which was to be occupied and protected by United States forces; and the United States was to pay Spain \$20,000,000 to reimburse her for money spent in the Philippines.

The war may be summarized as follows: It lasted 114 days; United States sea and land forces destroyed two Spanish fleets; received the surrender of over 35,000 soldiers; took by conquest the fortified cities of Santiago, in Cuba, Ponce, in Porto Rico, and Manila, in

the Philippines; secured control, pending peace agreements, of the entire Spanish possessions in the West In-

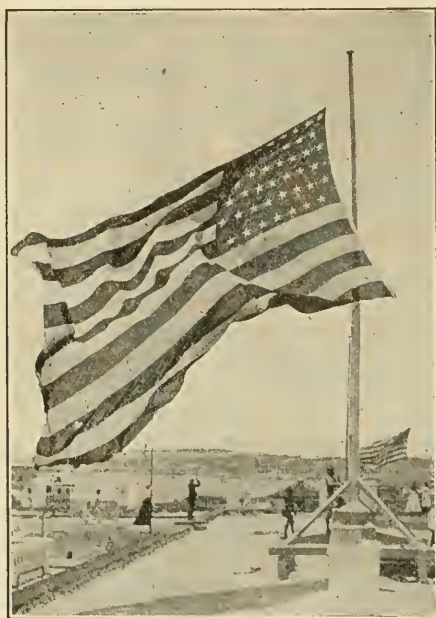


dies, the Philippines, and Guam; lost no ships nor territory, and had 279 killed and 1,465 wounded in the several engagements; while, besides territory and ships, Spain

lost 2,199 in killed and had 2,948 wounded. The immediate cost of the war to the United States in money was about \$141,000,000.

Americanizing
new possessions.

Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines were at first placed under military rule, and Guam under naval.



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OLD GLORY BEING LOWERED IN HONOR, THAT THE STAR OF
THE CUBAN REPUBLIC MAY RISE ON THE PALACE, HAVANA,
MAY 20, 1912.

The Cubans were encouraged in establishing an independent republic subject to the protection and a limited supervision by the United States, but after this was accomplished the United States had to intervene twice to secure the stability of the young state. Porto Rico was speedily accorded a territorial form of government.

Much trouble was encountered in the Philippines, where Aguinaldo, chief of a short-lived Filipino republic, headed a formidable insurrection. On the capture of the leader, and the suppression of the uprising, the isl-

ands were given civil government with a popular elective assembly.

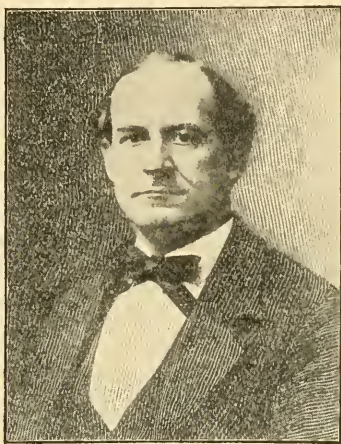
Anti-imperialism.

When it appeared that the United States intended to occupy the Philippines permanently, a new political party sprang up, taking the name of anti-imperialists, but making no nominations for important public offices. Its members, in and out of Congress, strongly opposed

the policy of the administration in its relations with the Philippines as savoring of imperialism, and so being a radical departure from the long-sustained political attitude of the country.

In the presidential campaign of 1900 there were eight tickets in the field, the largest number ever put in nomination, viz.: William McKinley, renominated; William J. Bryan, renominated by both Democrats and Populists; John G. Woolley, of Illinois, Prohibition; Wharton Barker, of Pennsylvania, Middle-of-the-road, or Anti-fusion Populist; Eugene V. Debs, of Indiana, Social Democrat; Joseph F. Malloney, of Massachusetts, Socialist Labor; J. F. R. Leonard, of Iowa, United Christian; and Seth H. Ellis, of Ohio, United Reform.

Presidential Campaign of 1900.



WILLIAM J. BRYAN.

In the ensuing election McKinley received 7,219,530 popular and 292 electoral votes; Bryan, on both tickets, 6,358,071 popular and 155 electoral; and Woolley, Barker, Debs, Malloney, Leonard, and Ellis, 209,106, 50,373, 87,814, 32,751, 1,059, and 5,698 popular votes respectively. McKinley was thus re-elected by a popular plurality of 861,459 and an electoral plurality of 137.

The principal events of McKinley's brief second administration were the purchase from Spain of the islands of Cagayan and Cibitu, in the Philippine group, inadvertently omitted in the peace treaty; the affirmation

by the United States Supreme Court of the constitutionality of the Porto Rico tariff law; and the settlement by Turkey of the long-pending indemnity claims of the United States.

CHAPTER LXI.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ROOSEVELT.

Assassination
of McKinley.

WHILE holding a reception at the Buffalo exposition, September 6, 1901, the President was shot by an anarchist, and died on the 14th. Theodore Roosevelt, the Vice-President, took the oath of office as President, and announced that he should assume and promote his predecessor's public policies.

Hay-Pauncefote
Convention.

A convention (Hay-Pauncefote) between the United States and Great Britain, regarding the construction by the former of an Isthmian Canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, was ratified by the Senate, December 16, 1901, and a few days later the French Panama Canal Company offered to sell to the United States all of its property on the isthmus of Panama, where it had begun the construction of a canal, for \$40,000,000. This proposal was favorably indorsed by the American Panama Canal Commission, and was subsequently accepted by the government.

Danish West
Indies.

About this time Denmark agreed to sell her West India islands to the United States for \$4,000,000, but later its Congress withheld its assent. It was considered in the United States that the possession of these islands (St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John) would be

of incalculable importance to us in case we built a canal across the isthmus.

A Philippine tariff bill received executive approval, and the President proclaimed peace and amnesty in the Philippines, July 3, 1902.

The year 1903 was conspicuous in the foreign relations of the country. A Panama Canal treaty with Colombia was ratified by the United States Senate, but rejected by Colombia. The Senate also ratified a commercial reciprocity treaty with Cuba. The latter ceded two naval stations to the United States, and the status of the Isle of Pines, left open in the peace treaty, was adjudged to Cuba. On the completion of the Pacific cable, the President sent the first message to the Philippines, the second one to encircle the earth in twelve minutes. A commercial treaty with China was also negotiated.

Foreign relations
in 1903.

The Alaska Boundary Commission sustained the claims of the United States. The Colombian state of Panama proclaimed its independence and set itself up as a free republic, without a revolution or bloodshed, many said at the initiative and with the connivance of various interests in the United States. Near the close of the year a treaty (Hay-Varilla) with the republic of Panama was signed, ceding to the United States the necessary territory for the construction, maintenance, and protection of an isthmian canal for \$10,000,000.

Panama Canal
Treaty.

A Cuban treaty, with the addition of the Platt amendment, giving the United States a freer hand in Cuba under certain contingencies, was ratified early in the following year; and, later, arbitration treaties were signed with France and Germany, and all differences

San Domingo
receivership.

with the republic of Panama concerning the proposed canal were settled. An agreement with San Domingo was negotiated, under which the United States guaranteed the territorial integrity of that republic, and agreed to take charge of its finances, paying forty-five per cent. of the revenues to its government for the public service and applying the balance to the payment of the foreign and domestic debts. This agreement became effective in 1907, and a New York bank pledged \$20,000,000 for the extinction of pressing claims and needed public improvements.

Presidential
campaign of 1904.

In the presidential campaign of 1904 there were six tickets in the field, viz.: Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, Republican; Alton B. Parker, of New York, Democrat; Eugene V. Debs, Socialist; Silas C. Swallow, of Pennsylvania, Prohibition; Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, Populist; and Charles H. Corrigan, of New York, Socialist Labor.

In the ensuing election Roosevelt received 7,628,834 popular and 336 electoral votes; Parker, 5,084,491 popular and 140 electoral; and Debs, Swallow, Watson, and Corrigan, 402,460, 259,257, 114,753, and 33,724 popular votes respectively. Roosevelt was thus elected by a popular plurality of 2,544,343, and an electoral plurality of 196.



Theodore Roosevelt government.

Anti-imperialism received a blow in the first days of this administration by the announcement of Secretary of War Taft that the indefinite retention of the Philippines was a fixed policy of the

Trouble had been brewing with President Castro, of Venezuela, over the seizure of asphalt properties of Amer-

icans in that country. The United States had protested against the seizures, and, later, had demanded that the matter be submitted to arbitration, but Castro refused the demand. Soon Castro's arrogance and high-handed procedures got him into serious trouble with nearly all of the principal countries of Europe, and, after defying one after another of them, he was deposed, and forced to leave the country. After a season he undertook to make a visit to the United States, but as "an undesirable alien" his stay was cut short. In 1913 he reappeared as the head of a new revolutionary faction in Venezuela.

Venezuelan
embroglio.

One of the most gratifying features of Roosevelt's second administration was his tactful and successful effort to bring about a termination of the Russo-Japanese war of 1904-5. In June of the latter year he invited the belligerents to get together on neutral ground and try to arrange peace. He offered the naval quarters at Portsmouth, N. H., as a place of meeting. Two days after his invitation was extended, both Russia and Japan pledged themselves to a peace parley. The first result of this action was the negotiation of the Treaty of Portsmouth, under which the war was ended, and a pleasing second result was the subsequent award to Roosevelt of the Nobel prize of \$40,000 for the most conspicuous service in the interest of universal peace. With this award Roosevelt established the Foundation for the Promotion of Industrial Peace.

Roosevelt and
Russian-Japanese
War.

The remains of John Paul Jones, the noted American naval hero who died in Paris in 1792, after being lost to all knowledge for 113 years, were discovered in an obscure section of a local cemetery in 1905 by

John Paul Jones'
remains.

United States Ambassador Porter. After identification beyond reasonable doubt, the remains received appropriate honors by the French and American governments and were given final sepulture on the Annapolis naval grounds.

Anti-Japanese
agitation.

An international incident that at one time was suggestive of unpleasant results was precipitated by an attempt by the authorities of San Francisco to segregate Japanese children in the public schools (1906). The Japanese government protested against such discrimination, and the United States government, with Roosevelt acting in person, took prompt measures to allay the excitement and to eliminate the apparent cause.

Social labor controversies had caused a strong agitation against both the Chinese and Japanese for nearly thirty years, and this condition was held responsible for the action of the San Francisco school authorities.

New treaty
with Japan.

A new treaty was negotiated with Japan, effective in 1911, in which provisions were made to conform more closely to modern conditions than did the treaty of 1894, and in which Japan agreed to effectively maintain "the limitation and control which they have for the last three years exercised in regulation of the emigration of laborers to the United States."

Algeciras Con-
ference.

In 1906, the United States became a participant in the Algeciras Conference, called for the purpose of settling various differences between France and Germany concerning their respective interests in Morocco. When the President accepted the invitation for American representation, considerable dissatisfaction was expressed by members of both parties in Congress. The objectors held that the conference concerned Europe only, but

the President argued that as one of the signatory Powers to the treaty of 1880 at the Madrid Conference the United States could not consistently decline the invitation.

It is deserving of note here that when the representatives of the Powers in the conference had got proposals, concessions, and agreements into an apparently hopeless tangle, the American representative (Ambassador White) proposed a modified plan that speedily brought order and a settlement out of chaos.

In 1907-9, the maritime part of the world was treated to a spectacle that it had never before beheld, when a fleet of sixteen of the newest and most powerful battleships in the American navy, accompanied by six torpedo boats and four supply ships, made a voyage of approximately 45,000 miles around the world. The President witnessed the departure of the fleet (December 16, 1907) and its return (February 22, 1909), both at Hampton Roads, Va.

American
battleship
world-cruise.

During this remarkable cruise no accidents occurred and all the ships returned in as fine condition as at the start. Everywhere the fleet and its officers and men were received with unbounded hospitality.

Throughout his entire tenure of the presidential office Roosevelt waged a vigorous warfare against trusts and other combinations in restraint of general trade. He initiated an investigation of the Chicago stockyards business, which led to the indictment of various meat-packers, and to a decision by the United States Supreme Court that the alleged Meat or Beef Trust was an illegal combination. This decision was the first on a long list of prosecutions by the government for violation of the Sherman Anti-trust Act of Congress.

Anti-trust
prosecutions.

To his initiative also is due the enactment of the Pure Food and Drug law, the first conference of governors of the several States, the legislation against unfair railway rate discrimination, the provisions for conserving the natural resources of the country, and the intervention in Cuba (1906) in the interest of staple government.

The last international act of the Roosevelt administration was the negotiation with Great Britain of treaties for the settlement of the Newfoundland fisheries dispute and of all controversies between the United States and Canada.

CHAPTER LXII.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF TAFT.

Roosevelt refuses
another term.

IN the latter days of his administration Roosevelt emphatically refused to permit the use of his name for renomination, and made clearly manifest his desire that Secretary of War Taft should succeed him in the office.

Presidential
campaign of 1908.

In the presidential campaign of 1908 there were seven tickets in the field, viz.: William H. Taft, of Ohio, Republican; William Jennings Bryan (third nomination), Democrat; Eugene V. Debs (third race), Socialist; Eugene W. Chafin, of Arizona, Prohibition; Thomas E. Watson (second race), Populist; August Gilhaus, of New York, Socialist Labor; and Thomas L. Hisgen, of Massachusetts, Independent.

In the ensuing election Taft received 7,679,006 popular and 321 electoral votes; Bryan, 6,409,106 popular and 162 electoral; and Debs, Chafin, Watson, Gilhaus,

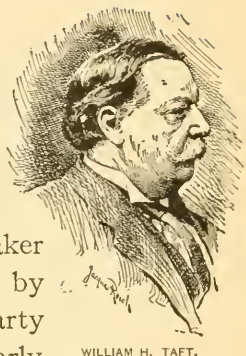
and Hisgen, 420,820, 252,683, 28,131, 13,825 and 83,562 popular votes respectively. Taft was thus elected by a popular plurality of 1,269,900, and an electoral plurality of 159.

On entering office Taft faced a serious division in his own party that had developed in the latter part of the Roosevelt administration. It was claimed that the rupture was occasioned by the usurpation of authority and arbitrary official acts by Speaker Cannon, and by the wielding of the "big stick" by the President. The result was the division of the party in Congress into two wings which became popularly known as Insurgents and Stand-patters, terms which unmistakably indicated the position of the two parties.

From the halls of Congress the disaffection spread rapidly over the entire country, and in several sections the Insurgent wing took the more euphonious name of New Idea Republicans. A result of the revolt appeared in the various State elections in 1910, when the party strength in Congress was changed from a Republican majority of forty-seven to a Democratic majority of sixty-six in the House, and the Republican majority in the Senate was reduced from twenty-eight to ten for the ensuing Sixty-second Congress (1911-13). One of the first acts of that Congress was to curb the power of the Speaker.

In Taft's first message to Congress he urged a prompt revision of the tariff. The Payne-Aldrich bill was introduced a few days later and became a law on August 5, 1909.

A feature of this tariff act was the authorization of the appointment by the President of a Tariff Board to



WILLIAM H. TAFT.

Insurgents and
stand-patters.

Democratic gains
in Congress.

Payne-Aldrich
tariff.

secure information to assist him in the discharge of duties imposed on him by the Act, as well as to assist the officers of the government in the administration of the custom laws. Under this provision the President appointed Henry C. Emery, Professor of Political Economy at Yale University; James B. Reynolds, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury; and Alvah H. Sanders, editor of the "Breeder's Gazette," of Chicago.

Income-tax
amendment.

While the tariff bill was passing the gantlets of Congress, and as a further means of increasing the revenues, Congress adopted and the President approved a joint resolution to propose to the States an income-tax amendment to the Federal Constitution. Early in 1913 the requisite three-fourths of the States (thirty-six) had ratified the proposal, and it became the Sixteenth Amendment. It reads as follows:

"The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment, among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration."

Action on this amendment, necessary to establish rates, applications, exemptions, and other methods of procedure, formed a perplexing feature of the legislation of the wholly Democratic Congress in its extra session of 1913.

Direct election of
U. S. Senators.

After an agitation of more than sixty years' duration for a transfer of the prerogative of choosing United States Senators from State legislatures to the people direct, the National Senate on June 24, 1911, gave its consent to the change by voting to submit to the several States a proposal to amend the Federal Constitution for that purpose.

The Senate had steadfastly held from its creation that Senators represented the States, while members of the Lower House represented only the people of their respective districts. It was because of this theory of the State as a unit that all States, large and small, were originally given equal representation in the Senate.

As an expansion of this theory it was maintained by Constitutional authorities that the State legislature was the most suitable medium for expressing this State entity. On the other hand, in recent years, it had been claimed that State entity would still be preserved if the people of the entire State, instead of the legislature, chose the Senators.

Probably the strongest popular reason for the proposed change was the practical impossibility of illegally influencing enough individual voters in a State to sway the result, as compared with the comparative ease with which enough legislative votes could be secured to bring victory to an ambitious candidate, especially when backed by a strong corporation or other "interest."

The proposed amendment was ratified by the necessary number of States in 1913, and became the Seventeenth Amendment. It reads as follows:

"The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years, and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

Seventeenth
amendment.

"When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: *Pro-*

vided, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

"This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution."

Anti-trust prosecutions renewed.

Under Taft's direction, the Department of Justice continued the prosecution of actions against alleged trusts and other illegal business combinations that had been begun in the preceding administration. Under Roosevelt there had been forty-four such actions, resulting in twenty-five indictments, and under Taft, from March 4, 1909, to October 1, 1912, there were seventy actions, resulting in forty indictments.

The most noted of these actions were those against the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, the American Tobacco Company, the Pacific Railroad Companies, the combinations popularly known as the Bath-tub, Cash Register, Harvester, Beef, Powder, Shoe Machinery, Sugar, and Wire trusts. The United States Steel Corporation and the alleged Money Trust were each investigated directly by Congress.

Two of the foregoing were rendered especially conspicuous because of the close analysis of their condition and operations and the decisions against them, both by the United States Supreme Court—the Standard Oil Company and the American Tobacco Company. In each case the opinion was prepared by Chief Justice White and dissented from only by Justice Harlan.

Standard Oil Co. Case.

In the case of the Standard Oil Company the decision, rendered May 15, 1911, affected the Standard Oil Com-

pany of New Jersey and thirty-three subsidiary corporations, having an aggregate capital of \$110,000,000. It held that the main corporation was a monopoly in restraint of trade under the Sherman Anti-trust law, and that it must be dissolved into its constituent units within six months.

The decision also recited that corporations whose contracts are not unreasonably restrictive of competition are not affected by the law, and that other great corporations whose acts may be called into question will be dealt with according to the merits of their respective cases.

These recitations embodied what the Chief Justice termed "the rule of reason," or the rule that the anti-trust law should receive a reasonable construction in its interpretation. Rule of reason.

In the case of the American Tobacco Company, the decision rendered May 29, following, affected sixty-five American corporations, two English corporations, and twenty-nine individual defendants, and re-affirmed "the rule of reason." The case was remanded to the Circuit Court to give the company an opportunity to disintegrate and re-create a condition of transacting business not repugnant to the law. American Tobacco Co. Case.

Justice Harlan agreed with the main features of each decision, dissenting only in the Standard Oil case as to a limitation of the application of the Sherman law, holding to a literal interpretation, and in the American Tobacco case, both as to such limitation and the delegation to a lower court of discretion to ascertain whether new conditions could not be created in harmony with the law.

The Supreme Court, in a sweeping decision rendered December 2, 1912, also held that the Harriman merger of Harriman merger dissolved.

the Union Pacific and the Southern Pacific Railroad Companies constituted a combination in restraint of trade within the meaning of the Sherman law, and ordered its dissolution.

While considering the foregoing typical cases of anti-trust prosecutions, and as evidence that "the half has not been told," considerable light may be gained concerning the extent of such combinations by noting the deductions of two close students of corporations and their practices.

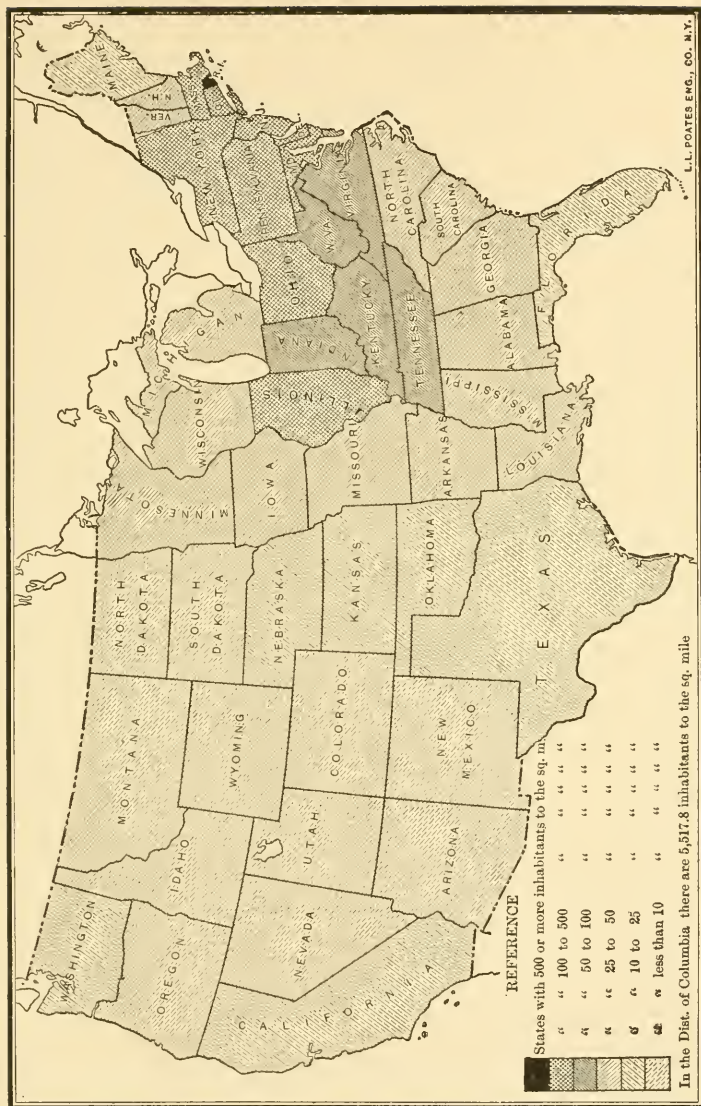
Extent of industrial trusts.

Mr. John Moody, author of "Moody's Manual of Corporation Statistics," "The Truth About the Trusts," and other similar works, observed in 1904 that there were seven greater industrial trusts in the United States, having an aggregate capitalization in stocks and bonds of a par value of \$2,662,752,100, and controlling over 1,500 subsidiary plants, and 298 lesser industrial combinations, with a total capitalization of \$4,055,039,433, and controlling over 3,400 subsidiaries.

Huge corporation capital.

Further, the aggregate capitalization outstanding in the hands of the public of 318 active industrial trusts at that time was no less than \$7,246,342,533, representing consolidations of nearly 5,300 distinct plants, "covering practically every line of productive industry in the United States."

Mr. Albert H. Walker, author of "President Taft and the Sherman Law," noted in 1912 that of sixty-two prosecutions begun under the Sherman law, only eleven (including those previously mentioned) "developed any hope of a general public benefit." He published a list of fifty holding companies that had not been disturbed while violating the law. These companies had a capital-



THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION IN 1910.

ization of over \$2,300,000,000, and controlled more than 700 subsidiary corporations.

Holding com-
panies.

Mr. Walker also declared: "I can furnish a list of more than 950 other industrial holding companies, which have an aggregate capitalization of more than five thousand million dollars, with more than six thousand subsidiary corporations."

During his entire administration Taft gave much attention to the conservation of our natural resources. The Supreme Court rendered a decision upholding the constitutionality of the establishment of the vast reserves for national and public purposes, and declaring that the National Government and not the States has the right to say how the reserves shall be used. The nation is the owner and has made Congress its agent in the disposal of its property.

Conservation of
natural resources.

A controversy over conservation policies between Secretary Ballinger, of the Interior Department, and Gifford Pinchot, Chief of the Forest Service, led to the dismissal of the latter by the President, to discreditable revelations concerning the conservation situation in Alaska, and, finally, to the resignation of Secretary Ballinger.

Congressional
reapportionment.

Membership in the National House of Representatives was reapportioned under the census of 1910. The ratio of representation was fixed at 1 to each 211,877 of population, and the number of members was increased from 391 to 435.

Army on Mexican
border.

International concerns played a large part in the events of this administration. The most perplexing action was the mobilization of a large army along the Rio Grande and the rendezvous of warships in the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific, in consequence of a wide-

spread insurrection in Mexico preceding and following the deposition of the venerable President Diaz (1911). On February 23, 1913, President Madero and Vice-President Saurez were murdered in Mexico City in another revolt. General Huerta became Provisional President. Local conditions grew more and more threatening to American life and property in Mexico, and anxiety was carried over into President Wilson's administration.

An international event that elicited interest in all parts of the civilized world was the abrogation (1911) by the United States of the commercial treaty negotiated with Russia in 1832. This treaty, while in the main intended for the promotion of the commerce of the two countries, contained a clause declaring that:

Abrogation of
Russian treaty
of 1832.

"The inhabitants of their respective States shall mutually have liberty to enter the port, places, and rivers of the territories of each party wherever foreign commerce is permitted," and "they shall be at liberty to sojourn and reside in all parts whatsoever of said territories in order to attend to their affairs, and that they shall enjoy, to that effect, the same liberty and protection as natives of the country wherein they reside, on condition to their submitting to the laws and ordinances there prevailing."

Privileges under
the treaty.

Soon after the ratification of the treaty, disputes arose as to the right of American-born Jews to go to Russia, and of naturalized American-born Russians who wished to return to Russia temporarily. Russia reserved sovereign rights in perpetuity over Russian natives, while the United States strongly upheld the individual right of expatriation.

The resolution in Congress which led to the abrogation recited that:

Discrimination
against American
Jews.

"The government of Russia has violated the treaty between the United States and Russia, concluded at St. Petersburg, December 18, 1832, refusing to honor American passports duly issued to American citizens on account of race and religion," and "the government of the United States will not be a party to any treaty which discriminates, or which by one of the parties thereto is so construed as to discriminate between American citizens on the ground of race or religion."

After the abrogation it was asserted that because of it the United States would be a heavy loser in its commercial dealings with Russia, but official reports of 1912-13 showed a marked increase in Russian trade with the United States.

Reciprocity with
Canada.

The treaty-making power of the country was notably exercised on a professed reciprocity agreement with Canada, which had a considerable support in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain, but the opposition in Canada, based on an assumption that the movement was designed to be the initial step in a scheme for the annexation of Canada by the United States, became sufficiently strong to cause the overthrow of the Laurier Liberal government and the restoration of the Conservatives under Borden.

General arbitra-
tion treaty.

In 1911, on the initiation of Taft, ably seconded by Sir Edward Grey, British Foreign Secretary, a general arbitration treaty was signed in Washington by Secretary Knox, for the United States, and Ambassador Bryce, for Great Britain, and in Paris by Ambassador Jusserand (at home on vacation), "to provide means for the peaceful solution of all questions of difference which it shall be found impossible in future to settle by diplomacy."

The treaty, in brief, provided for the submission of differences, restricted as above stated, to the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague, and, also, for the mutual institution of a Joint High Commission of Inquiry, which should first investigate differences and endeavor to settle them without submission to The Hague Court.

Germany, Italy, Japan, Denmark and other countries expressed a willingness to consider the terms and scope of the projected treaty with the view of possibly giving their adhesion to it also. When, however, the treaty came up in the Senate for ratification, it was so altered that the President deemed it unwise to submit it to the Powers interested for their action.

Allusion has already been made to the negotiation of the Hay-Pauncefote convention (1900) between the United States and Great Britain, concerning the construction of an isthmian canal. This convention was to amend the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850, an action deemed of great moment to the United States because of the vastly changed conditions in American interests on the Pacific coast.

Secretary Blaine had made an unsuccessful attempt to secure a modification of the original treaty in 1881. In 1899, Congress passed an act for the construction of an isthmian canal on the Nicaragua route, or, if that could not be secured, on another one, and directed the President to open negotiations for the abrogation of the treaty of 1850. The Hay-Pauncefote convention was a result of this direction.

Clayton-Bulwer
treaty.

In the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty it was agreed that "neither the one nor the other will ever maintain for

Provisions for
Isthmian Canal.

itself exclusive control over the projected ship-canal"; that "neither will ever erect or maintain fortifications commanding the same or in the vicinity thereof"; nor "fortify, or colonize, or assume any dominion over any part of Central America"; that in case of war between Great Britain and the United States, all vessels of both countries, in going through the canal, shall be exempt from detention and capture; and that the contracting parties shall protect and guarantee the neutrality of the canal, and invite other States to do likewise.

Abrogation of
treaty defeated.

The 1900 convention abrogated the first provision (above quoted) of the 1850 treaty. Great Britain conceded to the United States the right to build and maintain a canal as projected, and the United States agreed to maintain its neutrality and to keep it perpetually open to the ships of all nations in peace and war. After modifying several of its provisions, the Senate ratified this convention (December 20, 1900), but Great Britain refused to concur in the modifications (March 11, 1901).

Hay-Pauncefote
treaty.

A second convention was negotiated, November 18, 1901; the Senate ratified it, December 16th; and ratifications were exchanged, February 21, 1902, thus constituting the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty, which superseded the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, as the United States desired.

The rules of the Convention of Constantinople (1888) for the free navigation of the Suez Canal were adopted as the basis for the neutralization of the projected canal. One of these rules declares that the canal shall be open to the vessels of commerce and war of all nations observing the rules on terms of entire equality.

Panama Canal
bill.

In 1912 Congress passed a Panama Canal bill providing that vessels engaged in the coastwise trade of the

United States should not pay toll for passage through the canal, and barring railroad-owned vessels operated through the canal. This bill brought protest from Great Britain on each of these points, on the broad claim that they violated the provision in the treaty forbidding discrimination in favor of any nation in the conduct of the canal.

On the free-toll point the United States held that the provision did not apply to the United States, the owner of the canal, but to all other nations, and that as long as the ships of all foreign nations were accorded the same treatment in the use of the canal, the United States might pass American ships free, or rebate the tolls charged against them. British protests.

The year 1912 was shadowed by the disaster which befell the White Star liner Titanic, the largest and The Titanic disaster.

finest ship afloat, on her maiden voyage from Southampton to New York. Early in the morning of April 15th, at a point approximately 400 miles east of the



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THE S. S. TITANIC.

Newfoundland coast and 1,150 miles from New York, the Titanic sank in 2,760 fathoms of water, less than three hours after collision with an iceberg. Of the 2,340 passengers and crew, only 705 survivors were rescued. Among the 1,635 victims were more men of eminence on both sides of the Atlantic than ever before perished in such a catastrophe.

CHAPTER LXIII.

THE CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY UNDER WILSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Presidential
campaign of 1912.

THE last year of the Taft administration was an exceptionally exciting one politically. Friends of Roosevelt began urging him to enter the race for another nomination, but he several times announced that under no circumstances would he again become a candidate. His admirers, however, were insistent, and, after the governors of several States united in a petition that he would authorize the use of his name, he consented. As soon as his willingness was definitely known, the governors of eight States petitioned Taft to stand for a renomination.

Taft-Roosevelt
canvasses.

Then ensued the most strenuous and otherwise remarkable canvass on record for the presidential nomination by any party. Both Roosevelt and Taft made extended speaking tours of the country, and political conditions became acute.

While it seemed practically assured that the nomination lay between these two candidates, the limelight showed other aspirants in the field, most conspicuously Senator Robert M. La Follette, of Wisconsin, and, after him, Senator Albert B. Cummins, of Iowa.

Republican Con-
vention revolt.

The Republican National Convention met in Chicago, June 18, 1912. The National Committee found itself facing decisions on over 250 contests for seats, and its rulings thereon were severely denounced by Roosevelt and his supporters. The action of this committee was subsequently ratified by the Credentials Committee and the convention itself. The throwing out of many

delegates claimed by the Roosevelt adherents led to the refusal of 343 delegates to vote on the platform and of 344 to vote for the nomination of a candidate.

On June 22d, the platform was adopted by a vote of 666 to 53. Sixteen delegates were absent and the remainder declined to vote after Roosevelt had asked his supporters to take no further part in the proceedings. The same day the nomination was made under the following poll of votes: Taft, 561; Roosevelt, 107; La Follette, 41; Cummins, 17; Supreme Court Justice Charles E. Hughes, 2; present but not voting, 344.

Taft renominated.

While this convention was in session the Roosevelt delegates determined to hold a special convention in the interest of their leader, and, under the tentative name of Progressives, they met in Chicago, August 5-7, following, adopted a platform, and nominated Roosevelt by acclamation.

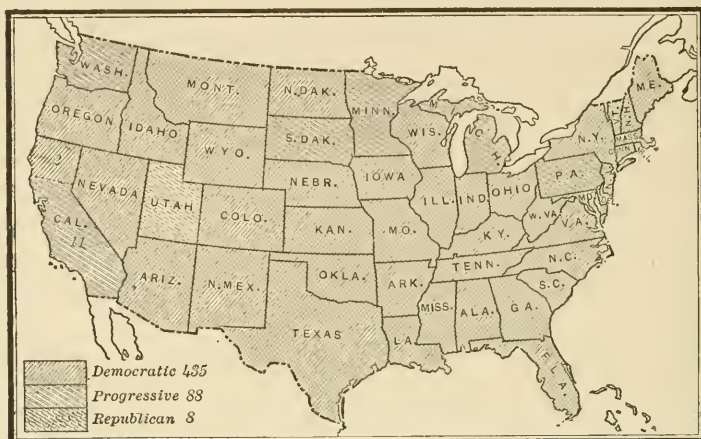
Roosevelt wing
organizes Pro-
gressive Party.

The Democratic National Convention was held in Baltimore, June 25th-July 2d, and had thirteen candidates for the nomination before it. The most conspicuous one was Woodrow Wilson, Governor of New Jersey and former President of Princeton University. He, too, had made extended canvassing tours of the country. Other leading ones were Champ Clark, Speaker of Congress; Judson Harmon, of Ohio; Oscar W. Underwood, of Alabama; Thomas R. Marshall, of Indiana; and William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska. The closeness of the contest in the convention is indicated by the fact that it required forty-six ballots to nominate, and that gave Wilson 990; Clark, 84; and Harmon, 12.

Democratic
Convention.

In the presidential election of 1912 there were six tickets in the field, viz.: Woodrow Wilson, Democrat; William H. Taft, Republican, renominated; Theodore

Roosevelt, Progressive; Eugene V. Debs (fourth nomination), Socialist; Eugene W. Chafin (second nomination),



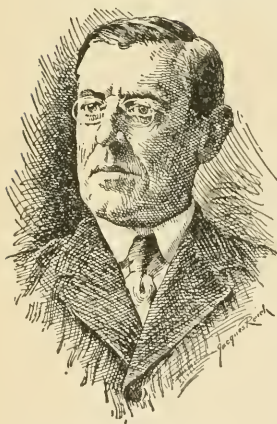
THE ELECTION OF 1912.

Prohibition; and Arthur E. Reimer, of Massachusetts, Socialist Labor.

Wilson's great electoral vote.

In the ensuing election Wilson received 6,286,214 popular and 435 electoral votes; Taft, 3,483,922 popular and 8 electoral; Roosevelt, 4,126,020 popular and 88 electoral; and Debs, Chafin and Reimer, 897,011, 208,923, and 28,750 respectively. Wilson was thus elected, the first Democratic President since 1892, with a plurality of 2,160,194 popular votes and 347 electoral.

A noteworthy feature of this election was the increase in the Socialist vote, viz.: from 94,768 in 1900 to 402,460 in 1904; 420,820 in 1908; and 897,011 in 1912. Another effect was the changes wrought in the political complexion of Congress. On April 16, 1913, the classification of members was as follows: Senate—Democrats, 51; Repub-



Woodrow Wilson

licans, 44; Progressive, 1—total, 96; House—Democrats, 290; Republicans, 127; Progressives, 16; Independent, 1; vacant, 1—total, 435.

Democrats gain control of Congress.

Two days after the election the President-elect issued a statement to the public in which he gave this assurance to the business men of the country:

"No man whose business is conducted without violation of the rights of free competition and without such private understandings and secret alliances as violate the principle of our law and the policy of all wholesome commerce and enterprise need fear either interference or embarrassment from the administration.

Wilson's pledge to legitimate business.

"Our hope and purpose is now to bring all the free forces of the nation into active and intelligent co-operation and to give to our prosperity a freshness and spirit and confidence such as it has not had in our time."

In his speech accepting the presidential nomination, Wilson appealed to "an awakened nation," and stated that he stood for presidential primaries; direct election of United States Senators; publicity of campaign contributions; a tariff for revenue only and an immediate revision steadily downward; supplementary anti-trust legislation, civil and criminal; laws to prevent financial combinations such as a money trust; laws for safeguarding workers and improving labor conditions; justice for the Filipinos; conservation not limited to reservation; development of water-powers and waterways; revival of the merchant marine; a parcels post as complete as that of any other nation; levees for the Mississippi built and maintained by the government; and governmental promotion of agricultural, industrial, and vocational education.

Administration policies.

The Cabinet.

The Cabinet officers chosen by President Wilson to carry out his policies were:

Secretary of State.—William J. Bryan, Nebraska.

Secretary of the Treasury.—William G. McAdoo, New York.

Secretary of War.—Lindley M. Garrison, New Jersey.

Attorney-General.—James C. McReynolds, Tennessee.

Postmaster-General.—Albert S. Burleson, Texas.

Secretary of the Navy.—Josephus Daniels, North Carolina.

Secretary of the Interior.—Franklin K. Lane, California.

Secretary of Agriculture.—David F. Houston, Missouri.

Secretary of Commerce.—William C. Redfield, New York.

Secretary of Labor.—William B. Wilson, Pennsylvania.

The most eminent member of the new Cabinet was, of course, Mr. Bryan, whose appointment to the portfolio of State was in recognition of his services to the Democratic Party as candidate for the presidency in the campaigns of 1896, 1900, and 1908, and of his immense personal popularity throughout the West.

At the beginning of the Wilson administration bills were introduced in Congress for a revision of the tariff and a reform in the monetary system, two subjects which were of great public interest.

Chinese loan and recognition.

The President withdrew the support of the government (March 18, 1913) from the group of bankers who were co-operating with financial groups in Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia and Japan to float a \$125,000,-

ooo "Six Power" loan to China, on the ground that while anxious to aid the Chinese people, "the conditions of the loan seem to us to touch very nearly the administrative independence of China itself, and this administration does not feel that it ought, even by implication, to be a party to those conditions." On May 2d, following, he formally recognized the Chinese Republic.

The Mexican situation steadily grew more complicated and serious in the first six months of this administration. Strong influences were exerted on the President to cause him to recognize the Huerta government, and at the same time other influences counselled intervention as the only means of restoring order in Mexico.

Anxiety over
Mexico.

The American Ambassador to Mexico was called to Washington, and, after giving his views and recommendations, had his resignation accepted. Then the President sent former Governor John Lind to Mexico, as his personal representative, to act as adviser to the Embassy.

In the interest of international peace, the administration early developed a policy and first extended it to the Central American republics. It provided that when any two nations bound by the compact felt sufficiently provoked to go to war they would first submit their differences to an international jury, and their future action would depend on the findings of this body—fight or make up. Salvador was the first of the republics to sign a treaty with the United States to this effect, August 7, 1913.

Central American
pact.

There was also negotiated a very broad treaty with Nicaragua, containing the three clauses of the Platt amendment which constitute the effective control that

Foreclosing
Nicaraguan
Canal route.

the United States exercises over the republic of Cuba. Besides a virtual protectorate over Nicaragua, the treaty gives to the United States the exclusive right to construct a canal across the republic, thus foreclosing that route to any European Power, and also a naval base on the Gulf of Fonseca and several islands on the Atlantic coast of Nicaragua.

Anti-Japanese
agitation renewed.

Mention has been made of an anti-Japanese agitation in California. This was renewed in a new form early in 1913, when an anti-alien land bill was introduced in the legislature of that State, to exclude all aliens who have not declared their intention to become citizens from the customary privileges of land-ownership. Though no class of aliens was mentioned in the bill, the Japanese

government believed that the bill discriminated against the subjects of Japan.



HIRAM W. JOHNSON.

On the protest of the Japanese government against the enactment of the bill into law, the President undertook mediation, and sent the Secretary of State (Bryan) to urge upon the California authorities a modification of the bill that would avoid discrimination and not imperil national treaty obligations. The bill in amended form, but still objectionable to the Japanese gov-

ernment, was adopted and approved by the Governor (Johnson), May 19th.

California case.

The California side of the controversy involves racial antipathy, the non-assimilable quality of the Japanese,

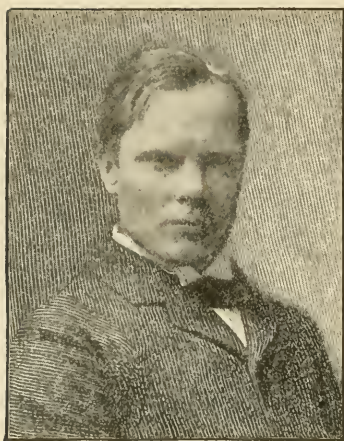
and the great advance in the labor field already made by them. It was stated as reasons for the alien land legislation that sixty per cent. of the Japanese in the United States live in California; that white farmers could not compete with the Japanese; that the farmers were being driven from their homes by the latter; that the Japanese were acquiring the best farming lands in the State; and that they already controlled ninety per cent. of its agriculture.

The law as finally adopted and effective August 10, 1913, provided that individuals then holding land might continue to do so during their natural lives, and that corporations formed prior to August 10th might hold land for fifty years. "The object of the new law is to prevent an increase in alien holdings and gradually to break up existing colonies." Provisions
of the law.

On January 13, 1913, the Senate of the United States, sitting as a Court of Impeachment, removed from office Robert W. Archbald, a judge of the United States Circuit Court, assigned to service in the United States Commerce Court, and disqualified him forever to hold any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States. Judge Archbald was found guilty on five of thirteen articles of impeachment, charging acceptance of favors from litigants in his court and the use of his influence as a judge to advance his business interests. His impeachment was the ninth to come before the Senate of the United States, the third in which the accused was found guilty, and the first in which the sentence included disqualification. Impeachments.

The impeachment of William Sulzer, Governor of New York, in August of the same year, aroused even

deeper and more universal interest than that of the federal judge. Governor Sulzer was accused of appropriating to his personal use mon-



WILLIAM SULZER.

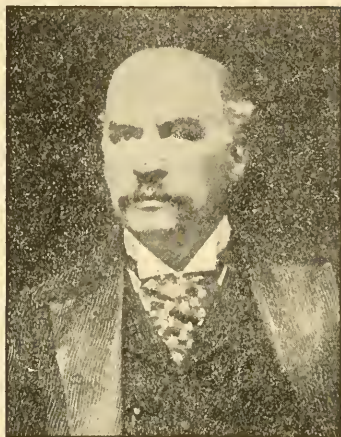
eys contributed to his campaign fund and of returning a false statement of the receipts and expenditures of his campaign. The impeachment proceedings followed a vigorous campaign by the Governor to wrest the control of the Democratic Party in the State from Tammany Hall, and the suggestion that Governor Sulzer was the victim of a conspiracy contrived for his defeat and elimination from public life attracted

nation-wide attention to his case.

John Pierpont
Morgan.

One of the commanding personalities of his time was removed by the death of John Pierpont Morgan on March 31, 1913, at the age of 75. A member of banking houses in New York, Philadelphia, London and Paris, with operations covering the globe, he wielded a power greater than that of most of the world's rulers. His domination of American finance was so complete and far-reaching that he was the object of constant attacks during his lifetime as the exemplification of all that was sinister in Wall Street; a few weeks before his death, for example, he underwent a searching and hostile examination at the hands of the Congressional Committee charged with the investigation of the alleged money trust, from the strain of which he never wholly recovered. But the universal estimate of his character and services

after his death contained no hint that any evil purpose had ever prospered through the conscious use of his influence. Mr. Morgan's character was marked by naturalness, simplicity and fidelity. His patriotism was deep and sincere, and the power which he possessed was freely and unselfishly devoted in every crisis to the preservation of financial stability and the promotion of commercial enterprise.



JOHN PIERPONT MORGAN.

Since the close of the Civil War many measures have been adopted either by the National or by State governments for the betterment of political conditions that did not come within the scope of the preceding review. Some of the most important are here epitomized:

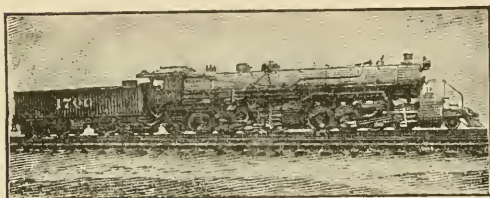
Political
betterments.

The Initiative, Referendum, and Recall is a triple system, originating in Switzerland, and now adopted in many of the States, giving to the people a large share in the conduct of public business. Under the initiative, a specified number of people may file a petition for the enactment of a desired law by the State or an ordinance by the municipality. Under the referendum, a petition so filed must be submitted to popular vote for ratification or rejection, and if ratified must be enacted. Under the recall, a specified number of people may petition for the recall, removal, or resignation of an official from dissatisfaction with his conduct in office or other stated cause; the subsequent method of effecting the retirement differs in various States.

Initiative,
Referendum,
and Recall.

**Government by
Commission.**

The Commission Form of Government, first adopted in Galveston after the great storm of 1900, and by 1913 adopted with various modifications to meet local needs by 206 other cities, provides in general for the election of a certain number of commissioners from the city at large, irrespective of ward lines or partisan affiliations. These commissioners elect one of their number as mayor and apportion the various administrative departments among themselves. The government is thus carried on by a small number of officials, responsibility is concentrated, and with the recall incompetent or corrupt officials



A MODERN STEAM LOCOMOTIVE.

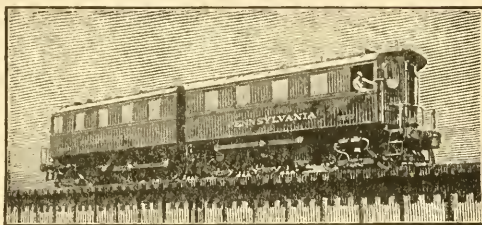
may be readily removed. No commissioner, officer, or employee can be interested in any way in any contract with the city.

Nearly every State has now either a manda-

Direct Primaries. tory or optional *Direct Primary Election Law*, applicable to both State and municipal election. This system does away with the former nominating conventions in which the "bosses" dominated and the people had next to no say. Under it a person seeking office files a petition signed by a specified number of his party voters. This gives him the right to have his name placed on a ballot, and he is then voted on by the registered party voters. The person receiving the largest number of votes for a given office becomes a party candidate for that office, and then comes before the general electorate at a regular election. This system also throws more safeguards around the registration of voters, and, if rigidly enforced, would eliminate the floater and repeater.

Preferential Voting was first adopted in Colorado, and it is claimed that its advantages are the abolition of primary elections, a clear majority at one balloting, and freedom of nomination by permitting the nomination for a given office of several candidates representing a given policy, without dividing the vote and thereby defeating the policy. Preferential Voting.

Non-Partisan Ballots have been adopted in many cities working under the commission form of government, for use both at the primaries and elections, where it is provided that the ballots shall have no party, platform, or principle designated, or a circle printed at the top. In several States certain judicial offices are excluded from the direct primaries, and nominations are made on a non-partisan basis. Non-Partisan Ballots.



A MODERN ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE.

Short Ballot Reform must be conceded to be a great political necessity, when, through the multiplicity of offices and candidates, a ballot reaches the length of fourteen feet, with a proportionate width, as some primary ones in New York did in 1912. The principle of the short ballot is (1) that only those offices should be elective which are important enough to attract (and deserve) public examination; (2) that very few offices should be filled by election at one time, so as to permit adequate and unconfused public examination of the candidates. Short Ballot.

Publicity of Campaign Contributions is made obligatory by recent laws of many States, under the general Campaign contributions.

title of *Corrupt Practices Acts*, and by a very sweeping act of Congress passed in 1910 and made more stringent by amendments in 1911 and 1912. State laws in general require candidates for nomination at primaries and for subsequent election to limit their campaign expenses to a certain maximum, and to file statements of all contributions received and payments made. Some States also prohibit corporations from contributing to campaign funds.

The national publicity law, affecting elections for Representatives in Congress, provides for the filing with the Clerk of the House by the treasurer of each political committee of itemized and sworn statements showing:

1. The name and address of each person, firm, association, or committee who or which has contributed, promised, loaned or advanced to such political committee, or any officer, member, or agent thereof, either in one or more items money or its equivalent of the aggregate amount of \$100 or more and the amount contributed by each.

2. The aggregate sum contributed in sums of less than \$100.

3. The total of all contributions.

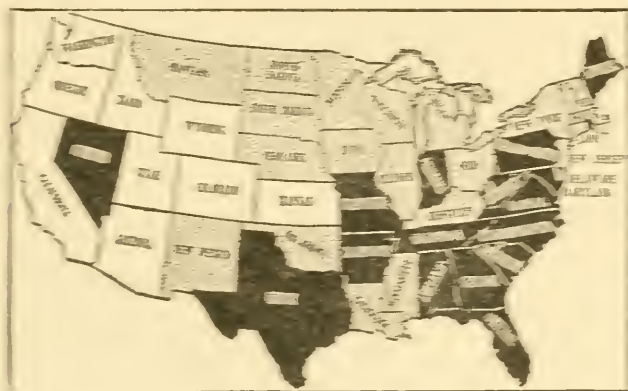
4. The name and address of each person, firm, association, or committee to whom such political committee has distributed, loaned, or advanced any sum of money amounting to \$10 or more, stating the amount given or promised to each.

5. The aggregate sum distributed, advanced, or promised by such committee where the amount in one or more items is less than \$10.

6. The total sum disbursed or promised by such political committee.

Municipal Ownership of Public Utilities has been a debatable problem in the United States in quite recent years. Many cities in which there was strong agitation for removing the construction and maintenance of essential utilities from private corporations to the municipal government, were already in the enjoyment of municipal-owned and municipal-operated utilities without apparently realizing it.

Municipal Ownership
1912.



THE PROGRESS OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

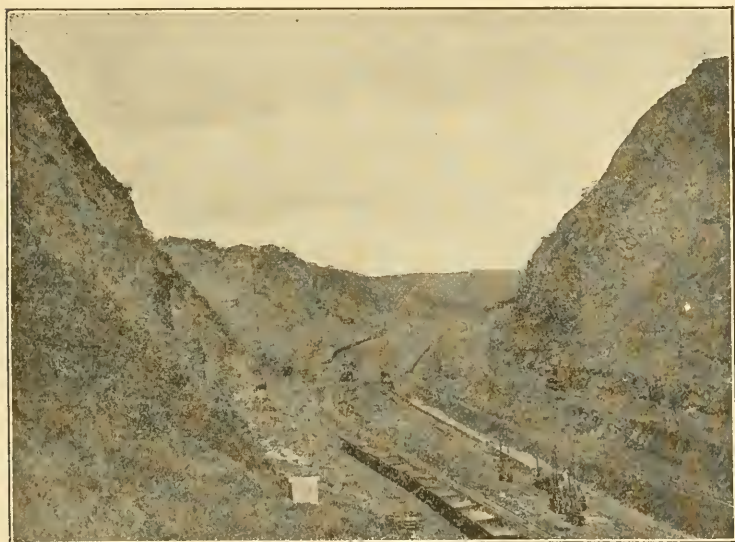
States shown in white have practically no municipal ownership. Those in black have a license law, while those shaded have license laws but remain mostly private. Provision in West Virginia becomes effective in 1912.

They had hospitals, infirmaries, schools for all classes, fire and police departments, libraries, sewers, parks, recreation centers, bath houses, improved streets and highways, and a variety of other necessities and benefits, all maintained by the municipalities. A survey of seventy-three of the largest cities in the country in 1912 showed that street railways and street lighting systems were in general about the only real necessities or utilities that the cities did not own and operate.

In 1906 the National Civic Federation sent a public

for woman suffrage on equal terms with men was achieved in Wyoming in 1869; Colorado granted it in 1893; Utah in 1896; Idaho in 1896; Washington in 1910; California in 1911; Arizona, Kansas, Michigan, and Oregon in 1912; and Illinois in 1913—making eleven equal suffrage States at the latter date.

An approximate idea of the strength of the woman equal suffrage vote in the above eleven States may be gained from the Census report on "Population" (1910). The number of females 21 years of age and over aggregated 4,351,897, a total doubtless largely increased by the women who reached the age of 21 during 1910-13.



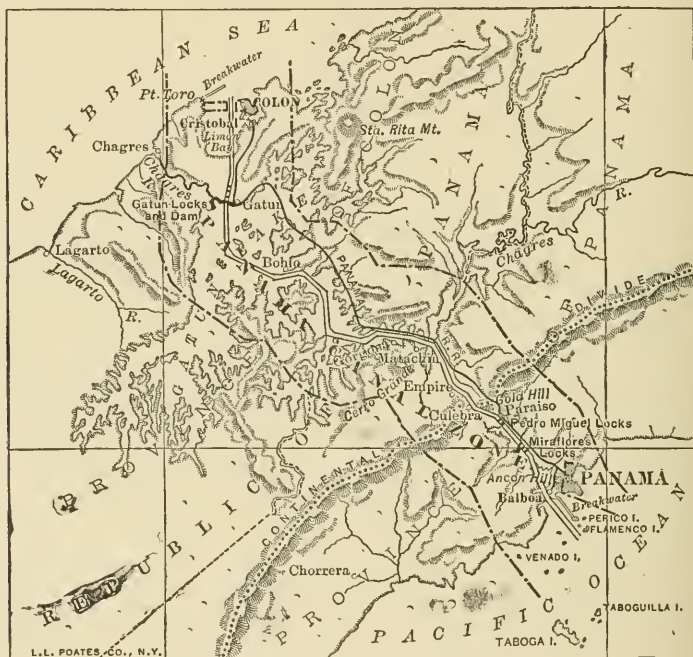
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THE CULEBRA CUT ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

The Panama Canal, the official opening of which was fixed for January 1, 1915, extends from deep water on the Atlantic to deep water on the Pacific, a distance of fifty

Panama Canal.

miles. The maximum width of the channel bottom is 1,000 feet; the minimum, 300 feet. There are twelve locks in pairs, having a usable length of 1,000 feet and a usable width of 110 feet. The great Gatun Lake has an area of 164 square miles, with a channel depth varying from forty-five to eighty-five feet. Work by the

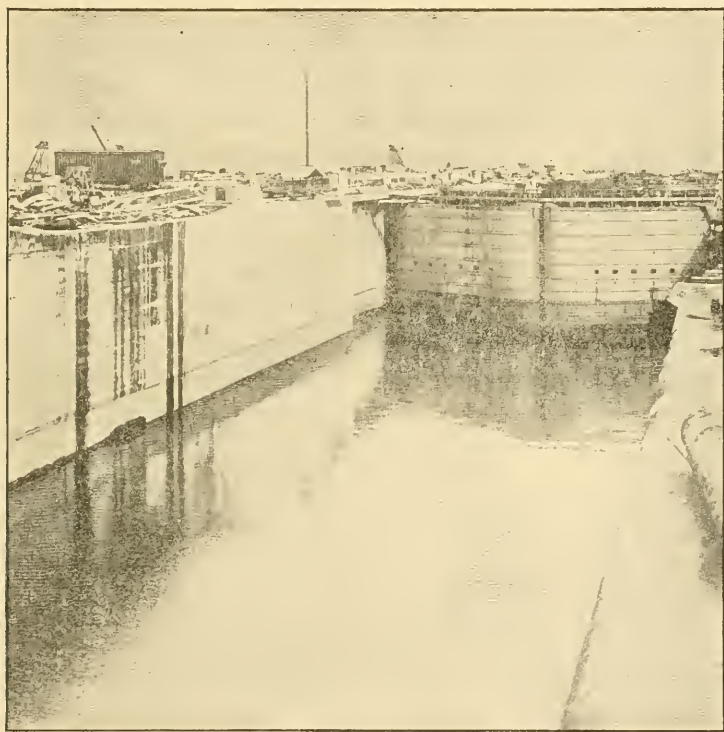


THE PANAMA CANAL ZONE.

United States was begun May 4, 1904, and the total cost of the canal was estimated at \$375,000,000.

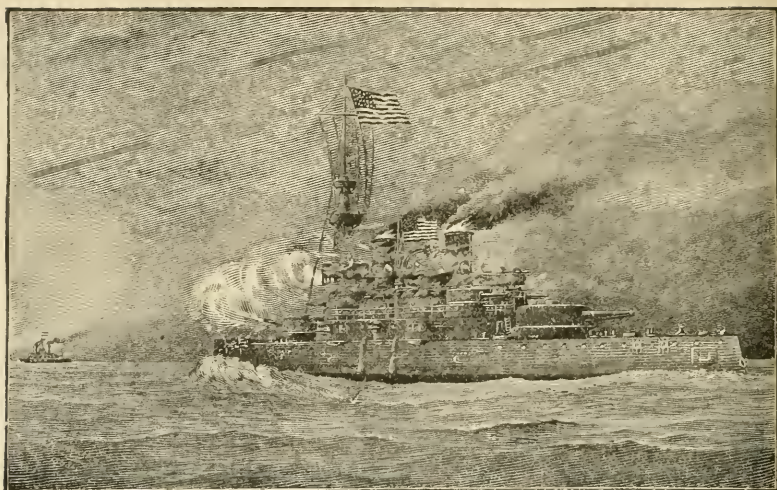
A vessel passing through the canal from the Atlantic will proceed about seven miles to the Gatun locks, where it will be lifted eighty-five feet to the level of Gatun Lake; then through channels varying from 300 to 1,000

feet in width to San Pablo, Juan Grande, Obispo, and the Pedro Miguel locks, where it will be lowered fifty-five feet to the level of Miraflores Lake; thence through the Miraflores locks, where it will be lowered to tide-level, and finish in a channel 500 feet wide and eight miles long, terminating in deep water in the Pacific. It was estimated that the time required for the passage of a vessel of medium size would be about ten hours, and for larger vessels, about twelve hours.



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THE GATUN LOCK ON THE PANAMA CANAL.



THE OREGON IN THE BATTLE OF JULY 3, 1898.

CHAPTER LXIV.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE COUNTRY.

Additions of territory before the civil war.

WE have seen how the United States, which was at first limited by the Mississippi River on the west and by Florida on the south, received before the civil war of 1861-1865 five additions to its territory, making it about three times as large as it was before, as may be seen by the maps on pages 241, 293, and 294: 1. The old French province of Louisiana, a vast region west of the Mississippi, by purchase from France. 2. The so-called "Oregon Country," by exploration and discovery. 3. Florida, by purchase from Spain. 4. Texas, by the annexation of an independent republic, once a part of Mexico. 5. The Mexican cessions by treaty after the war with Mexico.

To these must be added Alaska, which was purchased from Russia in 1867 for a little more than seven

Purchase of
Alaska, 1867.

million dollars (\$7,200,000). This is the only territory we now have on the North American continent that does not lie adjoining to the rest of the country. It is partly in the arctic regions, but the climate of Alaska on the Pacific coast is not severe.



The number of States at the beginning of the civil war was thirty-four. By 1876, the hundredth year of the American Republic, the number had increased to thirty-eight. Two States had been admitted during the war. The people of the western part of Virginia were mostly on the side of the Union. This part of the State separated itself from eastern Virginia, which was acting with the Confederacy. It obtained admission to the Union in 1863, as a separate State, under the name of West Virginia. Nevada, just east of California, and a part of the territory ceded to us by Mexico, was admitted in 1864. It is a land of silver-mining.

West Virginia
admitted, 1863;
Nevada, 1864.

In 1867 Nebraska was admitted. It is one of the most fertile of farming States. In the centennial year, Colorado came into the Union. This State lies in the Rocky Mountain region, and has gold and silver mines. Cattle-raising is one of its chief industries.

Nebraska, 1867;
Colorado, 1876.

1860—	\$1,885,861,676—	VALUE OF MANUFACTURED PRODUCTS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1860-1910.
1870—	4,232,325,442—	
1880—	5,369,579,191—	
1890—	9,372,437,283—	
1900—	11,411,121,122—	
1905—	14,802,147,087—	
1910—	20,672,052,000—	

YEAR.	Tons.	THE PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON IN THE UNITED STATES, 1865- 1910.
1865—	831,770—	
1870—	1,665,179—	
1880—	3,835,191—	
1890—	9,202,703—	
1900—	13,789,242—	
1910—	27,298,545—	

1790—	\$20,205,756—	TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED STATES, 1790-1910.
1800—	70,971,780—	
1810—	66,757,970—	
1820—	69,691,669—	
1830—	71,670,735—	
1840—	123,668,932—	
1850—	144,375,726—	
1860—	333,576,057—	
1870—	392,771,768—	
1880—	835,638,658—	
1890—	857,828,684—	
1900—	1,394,483,082—	
1905—	1,518,561,666—	
1910—	1,744,984,720—	

Relative Area: United States heavy; Europe, light.		Relative Area: before.	
Name	Sq. miles	Name	Sq. miles
Texas	262,290	Roumania	48,307
Austrian Empire	240,942	New York	47,420
German Empire	211,119	Mississippi	46,340
France	204,177	Louisiana	45,420
Spain	197,767	Pennsylvania	44,985
Sweden	170,973	Tennessee	41,750
California	155,980	Ohio	40,760
Dakota	147,700	Virginia	40,125
Montana	145,310	Kentucky	40,000
Norway	123,205	Portugal	36,028
New Mexico	122,460	Indiana	35,910
Great Britain & Ireland	120,832	Ireland	32,531
Italy	114,410	South Carolina	30,170
Arizona	112,920	Maine	29,875
Nevada	109,740	Scotland	29,820
Colorado	103,615	Greece	25,014
Wyoming	97,575	West Virginia	24,645
Oregon	94,560	Bulgaria	24,369
Idaho	84,290	Bosnia & Herzegovina	23,570
Kansas	82,190	Servia	18,800
Utah	81,700	Switzerland	15,892
Minnesota	79,205	Denmark	14,124
Nebraska	76,185	Eastern Roumelia	13,500
Oklahoma	70,470	Netherlands	12,648
Missouri	68,735	Belgium	11,373
Washington	66,880	Maryland	9,860
Turkey in Europe	63,550	Vermont	9,135
Georgia	58,980	New Hampshire	9,005
England and Wales	58,186	Massachusetts	8,040
Michigan	57,430	New Jersey	7,455
Illinois	56,000	Connecticut	4,845
Iowa	55,475	Montenegro	3,550
Wisconsin	54,450	Delaware	1,900
Florida	54,250	Rhode Island	1,085
Arkansas	53,045	Andorra	175
Alabama	51,540	District of Columbia	60
North Carolina	48,580	Monaco	6

Adapted from Shaler, The United States of America, Vol. ii, p. 62.

North and South
Dakota, Montana
and Washington,
1889. Idaho and
Wyoming, 1890.
Utah, 1896.

In 1889 Congress passed an act admitting to the Union four new States. Of these, North and South Dakota lie in the great wheat region, Montana is a mining State, and Washington, on the Pacific coast, is fast developing many prosperous industries and a thriving commerce. In 1890 Idaho and Wyoming were admitted, and in 1896 Utah.

Utah was first settled by people professing Mormonism, a religion founded by Joseph Smith in western New York about 1830. This religion permitted a man to have more than one wife, and Congress refused to admit Utah because some of its people were married polygamously, until this was forbidden by law.

Oklahoma, 1907.
New Mexico and
Arizona, 1912.

Oklahoma and Indian Territory were admitted as one State under the name of Oklahoma in 1907. In 1912, the Territories of New Mexico and Arizona were admitted, making the whole number of States forty-eight.

New Flag.

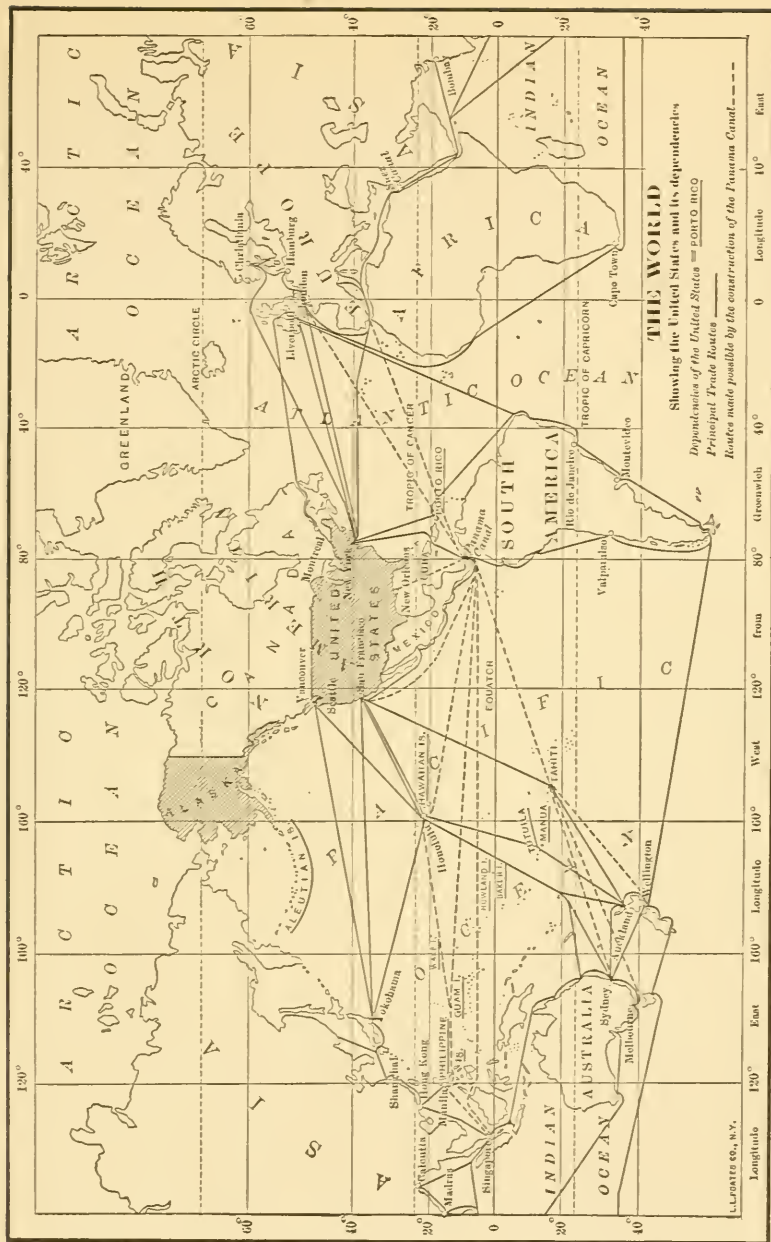
Since the admission of the last three States, a new design for the flag has been adopted, in which the forty-eight stars are symmetrically distributed in six rows of eight stars each.

Later Indian war.
The Sioux mas-
sacre in Minne-
sota, 1862.

The settlement of the Western States and Territories has brought the white people into conflict with the fierce and warlike Indians of the plains. In the summer of 1862 the eastern bands of the Sioux nation fell suddenly upon the defenseless settlements of Minnesota and killed nearly five hundred people. In the war which followed, the Sioux were driven out of the State, and thirty-eight of those captured were convicted of murdering women and children, and hanged.

Custer attacks
the Indians in
the winter.

Though there were no horses in America when the white men came, the Indians of the plains now have a





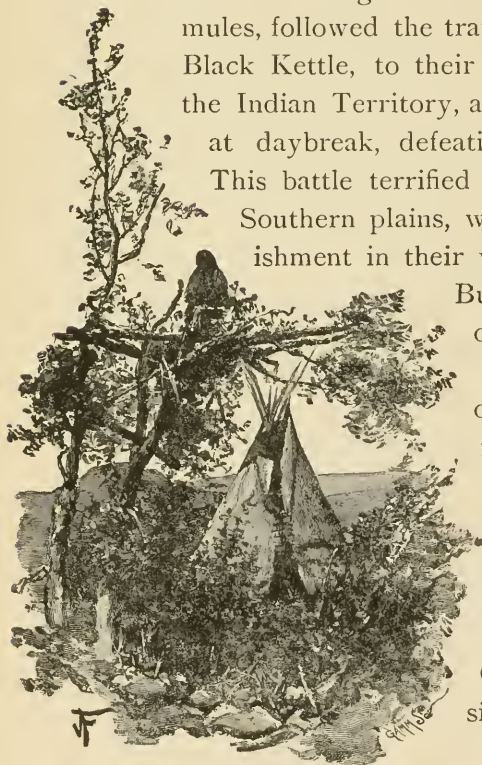
CUSTER.

race of small ponies, descended from horses acquired long ago from the early Spanish conquerors of Mexico. The Indians of the plains are said to be "the best light cavalry in the world." They were in the habit of committing their outrages on the settlements in the summer, when there was grass for the ponies.

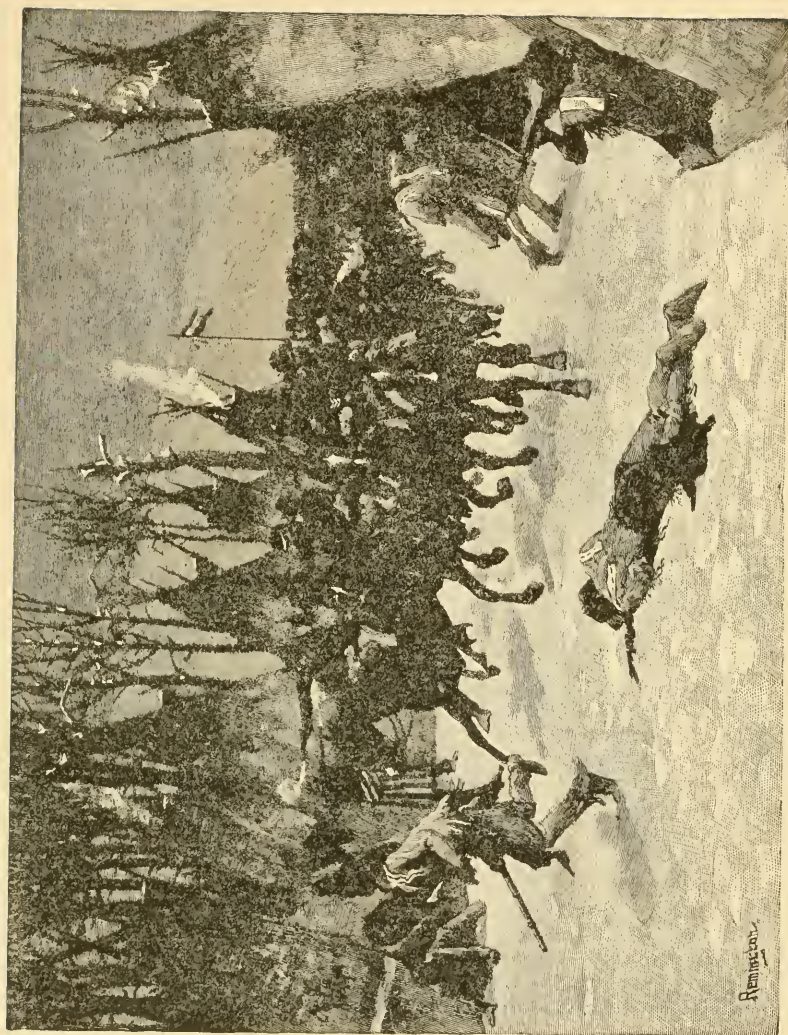
In the winter, when the ponies were almost starved, they took shelter in remote valleys, and counted themselves safe from attack, on account of the difficulty the white men found in moving wagon-trains. But, in November, 1868, General Sheridan sent General Custer, after the snow had fallen, to attack the hostile Indians in their villages. Custer, carrying his provisions on mules, followed the trail of a war party, under the chief Black Kettle, to their town on the Washita River, in the Indian Territory, and fell upon the sleeping savages at daybreak, defeating them with great slaughter.

This battle terrified and subdued the Indians of the Southern plains, who no longer felt safe from punishment in their winter retreats.

But, in a later war with the Sioux of the Northern plains in 1876, Custer, having attacked a force outnumbering his own, was surrounded and killed, with all the men under his immediate command. In this fight the Sioux were led by Sitting Bull. The Indians were afterward attacked by fresh troops and driven into Canadian territory. They have since been allowed to return.



INDIAN OF THE PLAINS WATCHING FOR BUFFALOES.



BATTLE OF WASHITA.

Present condition
of the Indians.

There have been other Indian wars, but, of course, the rash tribes are always worsted in the long run. The bisons, or buffaloes, which roamed as far eastward as Virginia in 1612, were also the main support of the Indians of Kentucky as well as of those farther west. But the hundreds of thousands of these creatures that grazed in the canebrakes of Kentucky and on the great open plains east of the Rocky Mountains have now been exterminated by the march of civilized man. The old life to which the savages were so much attached is fast breaking down. All the hunting-grounds will soon be occupied by farms, mines, and cities. There is nothing left for the Indians but to become civilized or to perish. Good men are now trying to protect them from wrong, and to persuade them to have their children taught to live the lives of civilized people, on farms, owned not by the tribes, but by individuals. Many Indian children are taught at the expense of the government. Some of the tribes located in the Indian Territory have attained to considerable civilization.

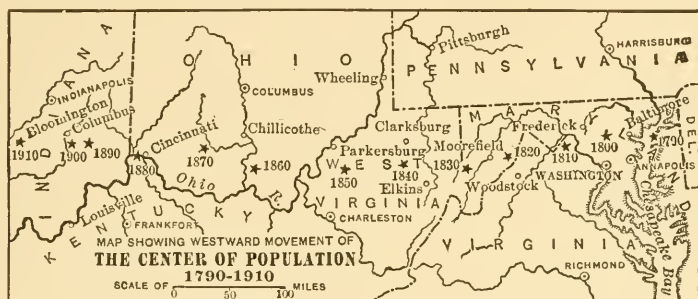
CHAPTER LXV.

POPULATION, WEALTH, AND MODES OF LIVING.

THE first census was taken in 1790. There were at that time less than four million people (3,929,214), almost all of whom were living in the belt of country between the Atlantic coast and the Alleghany Mountains. This population multiplied itself about sixteen times in a hun-

dred years. The census of 1910 showed more than ninety-one million people (91,402,151) in the United States, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The population

Increase of population.



of this country is already much larger than that of any of the nations of Europe except Russia. It is, perhaps, safe to assume that before the close of the next century there will be two hundred million people in the United States.

The increase of wealth has been yet more remarkable. This is due to the resources of the country, as well as to the enterprise of the people. Wheat from the rich farms of the great interior valley, and meat from the cattle-ranges of the Western States and Territories, are sent across the sea in vast quantities. Gold and silver from the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific coast, petroleum from the neighborhood of the Alleghany Mountains, and inexhaustible supplies of coal and iron in various regions, are great sources of wealth. Manufactures of many kinds also enrich the country. The United States is already the wealthiest of the nations.

Increase of wealth.

In a new country men become inventive, because they have to find out how to do things that they have never seen anybody do before. Americans are, perhaps, the

Early American inventions.

most ingenious in mechanics of any people in the world. Before the Revolution, Thomas Godfrey, of Philadelphia, invented the quadrant, an instrument to help the navigator to find his whereabouts at sea. About the same time Franklin invented the lightning-rod. There was also a valuable machine invented in South Carolina for doing the hard labor of taking the hull off of the grains of rice. This was run by the ebbing and flowing of the tide. In the middle colonies flour-mills were improved, and little elevating machines invented, so that wheat did not have to be carried to the top of the mill on a man's back.

Whitney's cotton-gin.

America has since become celebrated for what are called labor-saving machines. One of the most remarkable of these is the cotton-gin. It took so much time and toil to pick the seeds out of cotton that only small quantities were raised for home use. Long before the Revolution, some kind of a "gin" for cleansing the cotton of its seed had been invented, but it was neglected. When, however, machines for spinning cotton thread and weaving cotton cloth by steam-power were invented in England, there sprang up a great demand for raw cotton. In 1794 Eli Whitney invented a "saw-gin" for taking the seeds out of cotton. This made cotton-raising profitable, and caused the Southern States to grow rapidly in population and wealth. After the invention of the gin, indigo-culture was quite driven out by the more profitable cotton-raising.

Some other remarkable inventions.

The cotton-gin was almost the first of a great family of labor-saving machines, partly or wholly invented in this country. Reaping- and mowing-machines were first made successful by American inventors. Thrashing-machines were improved here. All the agricultural

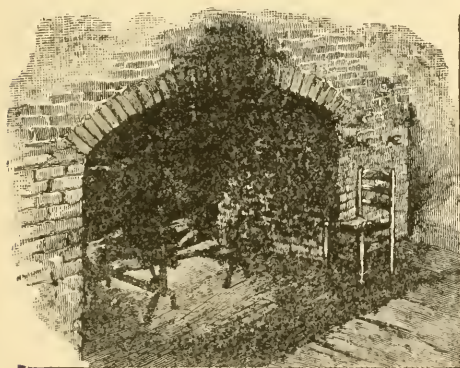
machines now used have practically been introduced in the last fifty years. The first really successful sewing-machine was introduced by Elias Howe in 1845. Morse's telegraph came into use at about the same time. The telephone is a recent American invention, of the greatest utility. The phonograph, which at first was regarded merely as a curiosity, now bids fair to be very useful. The type-writer is another invention that exerts a great influence on life.

More inventions of great importance have been made in the lifetime of people now living than in all the ages before. We live in a different world from that of our forefathers, who had only saddle-horses or wagons for land-conveyance, and slow-sailing ships or row-boats for water-journeys. We can go around the world in a great deal less time than some of the first emigrants took to sail from England to America. Our ancestors had neither kerosene-oil, gas, nor electric light. Stoves were practically unknown; for warm-

Change made by
inventions.



THE PENNSYLVANIA FIREPLACE,
INVENTED BY FRANKLIN.



OLD FIREPLACE.

ing themselves and cooking their food, people in old times had only wood-fires in wide, open fireplaces, which often chilled the room with draughts of air or filled it with smoke. They carded, spun, wove, and

dyed, by hand, wool or flax for their own clothing. Now steam and electricity do most of the work in spinning and

weaving, in making hats and shoes, in planing boards, and in turning wood. Even delicate little things like watches are made mostly by machinery.

The factory system.

Out of the use of machinery has grown up the factory system, which gathers working-people into towns and sets them to labor together in factories. Many people are able in this way to contribute to the making of an article, each doing his own part. This saves time, and makes each man's toil more productive. The building and running of these factories require a great deal of money; so that manufacturing is now carried on by two classes: First, the capitalists, who furnish the factory and its machines; second, the men and women who receive wages and do the labor. This has led to great discussions of the rights of the working-people, and their relations to those who furnish the money, or capital.

CHAPTER LXVI.

SCIENCE, LITERATURE, AND ART IN THE UNITED STATES FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO 1913.

Scientific pursuits not possible at first.

SCIENCE could not flourish in a country where all things were new and rude, and where the work necessary to sustain life occupied men's entire time. Many of the first comers to America were well informed in the knowledge of their day, and some of them even possessed large libraries; but their children had all they could do to maintain themselves and get the simplest rudiments of education. It is only where there is some leisure that people have time to observe nature and to

acquire other knowledge than that which is useful in the ordinary affairs of life. But the study of science was much retarded in the seventeenth century—that is, at the time when America was settled—by the violent religious controversies and sectarian hatreds with which the world was then vexed. The minds of learned men were largely engrossed with abstruse speculations, and with efforts to prove that their opponents were wrong on questions of theology.

Medicine is the science most immediately useful and necessary in daily life, and it might be expected to flourish sooner than any other. But at the time of the settlement of America it was, like other branches of knowledge, darkened by ignorance and superstition. The greater part of medical practice, in the first century and a half after the settlement of the colonies was begun, was in the hands of ministers, who had read some books of physic and learned how to compound a few of the mysterious mixtures of the time, and of women who had picked up a knowledge of remedies of one sort or another. The use of simple medicines and some other branches of the art of healing as then understood had been taught to women in the convents during the middle ages, and had remained a branch of female education in many families in England down to the time of the settlement of America. In the colonies medical herbs were grown in household gardens, and some women-doctors came to considerable local reputation. There were also men known as bone-setters, who reduced fractures and treated other injuries successfully, though they were without any surgical knowledge except that acquired by experience. Blood-letting and tooth-drawing fell

The study and
practice of medi-
cine.



DOCTRRESS
GATHERING HERBS.

mostly to the barbers, who were also surgeons in a small way.

Remedies used
in the colonies.

The medicines in use soon after the settlement of the colonies show the low state of knowledge. Learned men prescribed for small-pox the powder made by pulverizing a toad after it had been burned to a cinder. Pills of cotton were used for the same disease and others, and silk-worms dried and powdered were applied to the head for the cure of various complaints. Grasshoppers used in the same way cured colic, and ants' eggs were considered good for deafness. Earwigs boiled in oil were recommended for the hearing, and the brains of the screech-owl were believed excellent for headache. The rattlesnake was thought to be particularly medicinal. Its skin was powdered and taken internally. The cast-off skin was also thought to be beneficial when tied about the body. The oil of the rattlesnake was an accepted cure for gout, its heart was used medicinally, and its gall was given in balls made by mixing it with chalk. Tree-toads were worn about the neck in little bags for some diseases, and the feet of turkey-buzzards in oil were used to cure rheumatism.

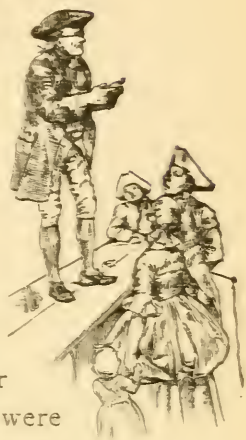
Better physi-
cians.

In later times, as wealth and intelligence increased, the number of educated physicians in the towns was greatly augmented. The most of these had attended European medical schools, particularly that at Edinburgh. Some of them made valuable contributions to medical science. But even the greatest of these doctors were also pharmacists, keeping "shops" in which they mixed and sold their medicines.

Colonial quacks.

In a new country, where education is necessarily somewhat neglected, quacks find a paradise, and in the

colonies ignorant pretenders to medical knowledge swarmed, as a writer of the time says, "like locusts in Egypt." In New York there was one doctor to every fifty families, and the most of these were illiterate charlatans. An intelligent writer maintained that more lives were lost in New York by pretended physicians than by all other causes whatever. Quacks traveled from colony to colony, frequenting fairs and other places of concourse, where they sold their plasters, pills, powders, and elixirs, by proclaiming their virtues from platforms. A man who chanced to be the seventh son in a family was a free-ordained healer of scrofula and various other complaints. All the quackeries known in England were transplanted to this country, and a new and particularly American sort originated here. The so-called "Indian doctor," pretending to secrets acquired from the hugger-mugger of the medicine-men, flourished as early as 1712.



A QUACK DOCTOR
AT A FAIR.

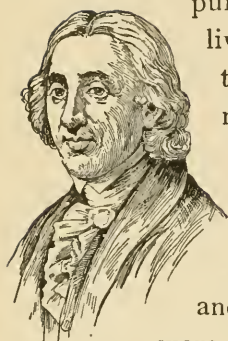
The study of botany in early times was much promoted by the desire to acquire new remedies for disease. In America many of the diseases were new, and remedies for them were sought among the plants of the country. It could not be, indeed, that intelligent men should live in a new continent, full of plants and animals hitherto unknown, without having their attention attracted to the study of these. There arose several eminent botanists among the colonists in this country. Such were Banister and Mitchell in Virginia, and such was John Bartram, of Pennsylvania, who is said to have had "a propensity to botanics" from his childhood.

Early botanists.

The other sciences most studied in the colonies were perhaps mathematics and astronomy, to which the writ-

Mathematicians
and astronomers
in the colonies.

ings of Newton had given a great impulse about the beginning of the eighteenth century. Several Americans constructed orreries to show the motions of the planets. Philadelphia was unquestionably the center of scientific



RITTENHOUSE.

pursuits in America during the last century. Here lived the glazier Thomas Godfrey, who neglected his trade and gave his days and nights to the study of mathematics and the invention of the quadrant, to which we have referred. Here lived David Rittenhouse, who when a boy had covered the handle of his plow and the fence-rails about the field in which he worked with mathematical calculations, and who became famous as an astronomer. There were many other students of astronomy and chemistry in Philadelphia, but the center of this group was Benjamin Franklin, who was interested in every kind of intellectual pursuit and every public improvement.

Influence of public libraries.

To Franklin was due the founding of public subscription libraries in the colonies. Books in that day were scarce and high in price, and magazines of the kind now made were unknown. In 1731 Franklin founded the Philadelphia Library. This was imitated in other towns in the colonies, and reading-rooms became fashionable. People were ashamed to be without knowledge; and, having few public amusements, they read a good deal, so that the "common tradesmen and farmers" in American towns were said to have been better informed than people of the same class in Europe. Franklin in his old age attributes in some degree to this mental awakening produced by public libraries, "the stand made throughout the colonies in defense of their privileges" during the Revolution.

It is always interesting to trace a stream to its source, and to see the great river where it is born in a little rill. The beginning of general literature in this country can perhaps be traced to the almanacs. These little publications, which came out once a year, managed to compass a good deal within their small space. They had medical advice along with directions for farming, and many witty general remarks. Some of the best things written at the time were printed in the old almanacs, of which there were many. One of the best of these was that issued by Nathaniel Ames in Boston. But the most famous and widely known of any was the one that Franklin edited, for twenty-five years, under the title of "Poor Richard's Almanac." It attained at one time a circulation of ten thousand copies, which was extremely large in a country so thinly peopled.

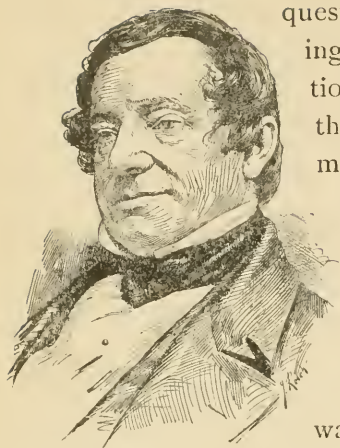
Almanac literature.

Franklin is perhaps the real starting-point of American literature. As he was the first American scientific discoverer of renown, the first American diplomatist, the founder of the first public library and the first permanent philosophical society in this country, so he was the first writer in the field of general literature. His writings are full of acute thought on practical themes, and suited to the genius of a busy people engrossed with their outward affairs.

Writings of Franklin.

But the good beginning made by Franklin and others toward an American literature received a check from the excitements which preceded the Revolution and the discussions which followed the establishment of a new nation. As in the seventeenth century the best minds in America were engrossed by religious debates, in the last half of the eighteenth they were chiefly occupied with

Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison



WASHINGTON IRVING.

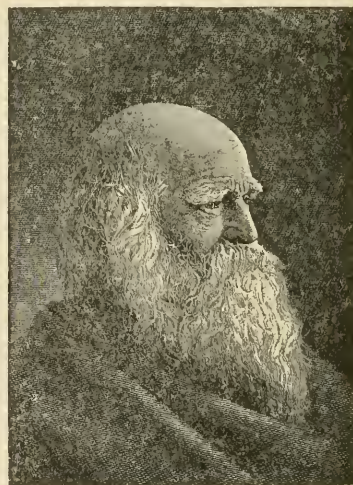
Irving.

questions of state. Besides the practical writings of Franklin and the theological speculations of the great New England divine, Jonathan Edwards, almost the only works of permanent value produced during the first two centuries after settlements in the present United States began are the writings of Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison, on political subjects.

Washington Irving, who is sometimes called the father of American literature, was born in New York in 1783. His first important work was a burlesque, called "Knickerbocker's History of New York," in which he makes much sport of the quaint customs of the Dutch founders of the colony of New Netherland. The book is full of drollery, and won praise for its author on both sides of the Atlantic. But Irving's most famous work is the "Sketch-Book," in which appear the charming tales of "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow." His "Life of Washington" is still a standard biography, and his other works are among the most pleasing of American productions by reason of their graceful style and playful humor.

Bryant.

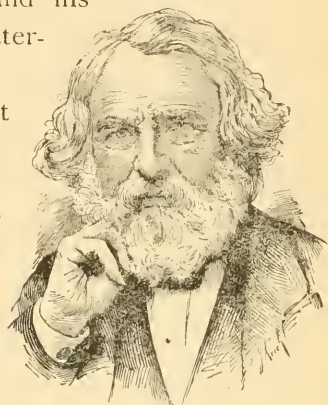
William Cullen Bryant, born in western Massachu-



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

setts in 1794, was the first American who became widely known as a poet. Though he lived to be very old, his most famous poem, "Thanatopsis," was written when he was not yet nineteen years of age, and his almost equally famous "Lines to a Water-towl" before he was twenty.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, the most popular and the most widely celebrated of our poets, was born in Portland, Maine, in 1807. Of his shorter pieces, "Excelsior" and "The Psalm of Life" are best known. His "Hiawatha" is an epic poem of Indian life, and his "Evangeline" is a narrative poem founded on the story of the expulsion of the Acadians.

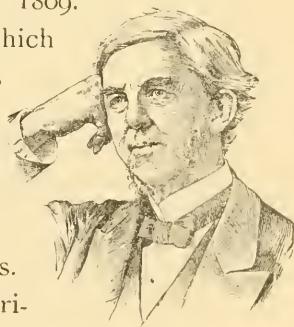


HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.

John Greenleaf Whittier, sometimes called "the Quaker poet," was born in Massachusetts, in the same year with Longfellow (1807). Many of his poems describe simple, rural life. Others relate to slavery and the civil war. One of the most charming is "Snow-Bound," a description of winter scenes in New England, written in 1866.

Whittier.

Oliver Wendell Holmes was born in 1809. He is famous for his witty poems, of which "The Last Leaf" and "The One-Hoss Shay" are two of the best known. His prose work, "The Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table," is thought to be one of the very brightest books in our literature. He has also written several successful novels. Holmes probably excels every other American writer for wit.



OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

Poe.

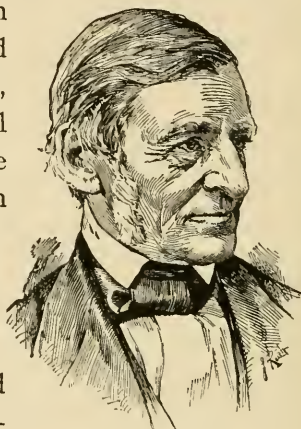
Edgar Allan Poe, born in 1809, wrote some poems that have achieved a world-wide fame. Of these, "The Raven" is the best known. His weird and marvelous short stories have also a permanent place in literature. Poe's writings appeal powerfully to the imagination.



EDGAR ALLAN POE.

Emerson.

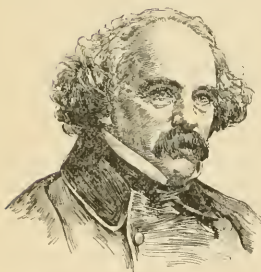
Ralph Waldo Emerson was born in 1803, in Boston. Some of his poems are greatly admired by literary readers; they can hardly be called popular. He is more widely known by his essays as a profound thinker and a writer of genius, poetic inspiration, and rare moral aspirations. His essays on the conduct of life are filled with wholesome suggestions.



RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

Lowell.

James Russell Lowell was born in 1819. He is best known to general readers by his poems in the New England dialect, called the "Biglow Papers." Lowell is also famous for his very thoughtful and witty essays, criticisms, and addresses.



NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

Cooper and
Hawthorne.

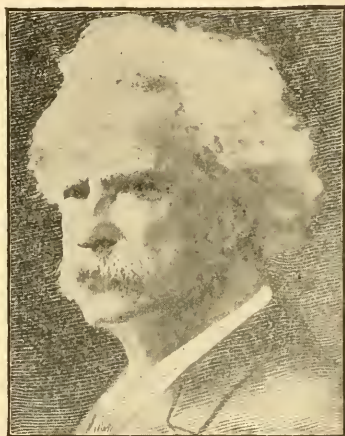
Walt Whitman, born in 1819, was the most eccentric of our poets, and one who can be classed with no other.

Two American writers of fiction in the period before the civil war attained a world-wide fame.

James Fenimore Cooper was born in New Jersey in 1783. His novels are full of action and adventure. The most famous are those known as "The

Leather-Stocking Tales." A very different writer is Nathaniel Hawthorne, who was a rare genius, and whose stories have a weird and subtle interest. Of these, "The Scarlet Letter," "The House of the Seven Gables," "Twice-Told Tales" and "The Tanglewood Tales" are general favorites.

Samuel Langhorne Clemens, much better known as **Mark Twain**. Mark Twain, who was probably the greatest humorist we have ever had, was born in 1835. From the time he commenced writing until his death, there was probably no other writer who was so widely read and loved by all classes of people. His two most famous books are probably "The Adventures of Tom Sawyer" and "The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn," but all of his numerous writings have a deservedly popular appeal. Mark Twain's humor is very distinctively American, but his writings are none the less appreciated the world over.



MARK TWAIN.

Harriet Beecher Stowe, born in Connecticut in 1812, **Mrs. Stowe**. was rendered famous by "Uncle Tom's Cabin," of which as a political force we have spoken elsewhere. Although some of her stories of New England life were enough to have given her high distinction, she is remembered chiefly as the writer of the greatest anti-slavery novel.

William Hickling Prescott, born in 1796, was a patient **Prescott**. scholar and a brilliant writer. His "History of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella" and his histories of the



HARRIET BEECHER STOWE.

Historians.

conquests of Mexico and Peru are as fascinating as brilliant romances, though they are the result of the most patient research, conducted by one almost blind. George Bancroft, born in 1800, is less elegant in style, but famous for the great knowledge of his subject shown in his "History of the United States." John Lothrop Motley, born in 1814, wrote several works on Dutch history that have achieved a wide reputation. Francis Parkman has taken for his field the French settlements, voyages, and discoveries in North America, and his several histories relating to parts of this great theme are highly esteemed.

Scientific investigators.

A number of Americans eminent in science have done honor to this country by their discoveries and writings. Among these John J. Audubon, the adventurous naturalist, and Asa Gray, the eminent systematic botanist, though men of very different mold, are alike in their wide and permanent fame. Some of our greatest men of science are still in active service, and any attempt to distinguish them from others would be out of place here.



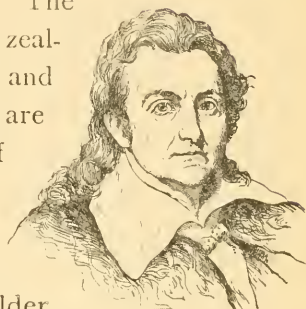
WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT.



JOHN L. MOTLEY.

Of the old school of writers, the greater number belonged to a group about Boston, which in the period before and during the war had attained a literary activity in advance of that of the rest of the country. The writers of the present period are much more widely distributed; the intellectual life of our time is much more pervasive. Every

great natural division of the country is represented in the present group of writers. The older authors were chiefly poets and essayists; those of to-day give themselves more to works of fiction and humor. The later men of letters now in active service are zealous students of our own life. The manners and character of Americans in town and country are described with fullness in recent works of fiction, and the dialect variations and folk-speech of almost every part of the United States have been studied and reproduced for purposes of literary art. Many of the older historians preferred foreign themes; the historical writers and students of to-day in this country devote themselves chiefly to exploring the history of the United States. These changes probably mark a growth of intellectual independence.

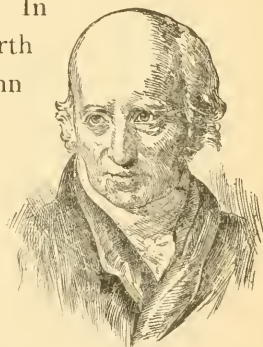


JOHN J. AUDUBON.

In the colonial time there was little or nothing that could be called American art. Several portrait-painters of ability practiced their calling in America. In the last century three artists of American birth achieved fame in England—Benjamin West, John Singleton Copley, and Gilbert Stuart.

Early American painters.

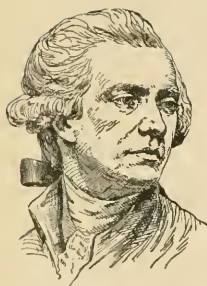
West was born in Pennsylvania in 1738. Though he had never seen a picture of any sort, he made a drawing, at seven years of age, in red and black ink, of a sleeping infant whose cradle he had been set to watch. His mother was delighted with this mark of talent, and her praise encouraged West to continue to draw.



BENJAMIN WEST.

He covered his copy-book with drawings of birds, flowers, and quadrupeds before he had learned to write.

When missed from the plow one day, he was found under a bush, where he had sketched from memory portraits of every member of the family. In order to get colors, he learned from the Indians how to prepare the red and yellow pigments with which they painted their faces; to these he added blue by getting indigo from his mother. He made a brush of hairs from the tail of the house-cat. As there was small chance for an artist in America, he settled in England, where he became the favorite painter of the king, and the President of the Royal Academy.



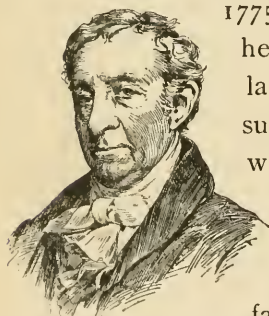
JOHN S. COPLEY.

John Singleton
Copley.

Copley was born in Boston in 1737. He early showed talent, and practiced the only art for which the colonists had any taste, that of portrait-painting. He sent a portrait to West in England, and its merit gave him a position as an artist. In 1774 he went to London, where the rest of his life was spent, and where he achieved fame as a painter of portraits and historical pieces.

Gilbert Stuart.

Stuart, who was probably the ablest of the three, was a native of Rhode Island. He went to England in 1775, and was a pupil of Benjamin West. In 1792 he returned to the United States, with a particular desire to paint a portrait of Washington. He succeeded in making several of these, from one of which the portrait of Washington given in this work is engraved. Stuart may almost be considered the father of American art.



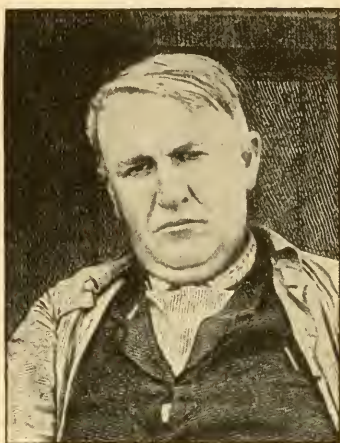
GILBERT STUART.

The conditions of our life were formerly unfavorable to the production of a school of painters and sculptors, but there has been a large advance in late years.

In the realm of science and discovery, our country has had in recent years, men quite as pre-eminent as

Scientific
discoveries.

in art and letters. Among the greatest benefactors of the race in making useful inventions, the name of Thomas A. Edison is a household word. Born in 1847, he became a newsboy on the Grand Trunk Railroad, where he soon learned to become a skilled operator. His interest in his work led him to try to discover ways of increasing the efficiency of the telegraph. From these beginnings his spirit of invention had full sway, and his useful achievements



THOMAS A. EDISON.

to-day number many hundreds. He invented many telegraphic appliances and was the first to discover how to send several messages over one wire at the same time. Among his most important other inventions are the phonograph, the incandescent lamp and light system, as well as many electrical and other devices which are in general use the world over.

Edison.

Edison is a tireless worker, and is found in his laboratory every day making new experiments and seeking new discoveries. His remarkable genius is as generally recognized abroad as here, and Americans take a justifiable pride in his achievements.

The Wright Brothers, Wilbur and Orville, were pioneers in another field. Wilbur Wright was born in 1867, and his brother Orville in 1871. Constantly working together, they made the conquest of the air their

The Wright
Brothers.

study, and were the first to produce a satisfactory heavier-than-air flying machine, upon which they were granted patents the world over.



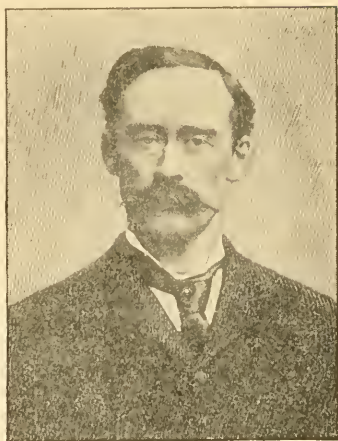
WILBUR WRIGHT.

They made many spectacular flights both in this country and abroad, and their initiative gave a great impetus to other inventors and aeronauts in every civilized country on the globe. While almost countless varieties of monoplanes and biplanes have been manufactured by others who were spurred on by their example, the Wright Brothers' aeroplane is probably excelled by none, for no other inventors have contributed so materially to the really scientific

development of this new method of navigation. The United States Government has laid its official sanction upon the Wright machines by purchasing one of them, and the enterprising American inventors have received flattering recognition from many foreign scientific bodies.

Peary. The conquest of the North Pole has been for many centuries the dream of explorers. Beset with almost untold hardships and apparently insuperable obstacles, as shown by the failures of explorers from every clime and country, the conquest of the North Pole continued to defy the courage and the hope of man. It remained for an American, Robert E. Peary, to make this supreme discovery, which brought undying fame both to himself and his country. Peary was born in 1856, and after completing his education entered the United States Navy as a civil engineer. He soon turned to arctic

exploration, and it may fairly be stated that his whole life was devoted to this pursuit. He made many expeditions to the Arctics, in each of them discovering some new land, or making some valuable scientific discovery, but in all of them bearing in mind his ultimate object. He approached the problem with a true scientific spirit and prepared to forestall all the perils of the frozen North. After almost a quarter of a century in this work, which was but a preparation for his crowning achievement, and with a courage as magnificent as his skill was unerring, he reached his goal on April 6, 1909, and unfurled there the Stars and Stripes. His triumph was acclaimed by every nation on earth, for his achievement represented man's conquest over the last great unconquered tract of nature.



ROBERT E. PEARY.

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